











# TRAVELS

IN THE

OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA,

UNDERTAKEN BY ORDER OF

THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE,

DURING THE FIRST SIX YEARS OF THE REPUBLIC,

BY

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OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE, &c. &c.*

**Illustrated by Engravings,**

CONSISTING OF

HUMAN FIGURES, ANIMALS, PLANTS, MAPS, PLANS;

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED

A MAP OF GREECE, OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,

AND

OF A PART OF ASIA MINOR.

VOLUMES I. AND II.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

L O N D O N: . .

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(FIRST DELIVERY.)

## TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

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\* This plate requiring particular care in the execution, is not yet finished: it will be delivered with those which refer to the *TRAVELS IN EGYPT*.

 The Binder is directed to arrange the Plates in an Atlas, according to their numerical order.

## E R R A T A.

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### V O L. I.

Page	11	Line 2, <i>for manner read mode</i>
	22	— 13, <i>for royal read imperial</i>
	51	— 2, <i>for saw read found</i>
	83	— 2, <i>for Nicodemia read Nicomedia</i>
	157	— 1, <i>for exists read exist</i>
	166	— 18, <i>for some remedies read of some remedies</i>
	197	— 11, <i>for people read nation</i>

*Note.* In page 87 of this volume, we promised to consult the Author respecting the fish which he calls *pageau*. This we have done; and, as we conjectured, it proves to be the *sparus erythrinus* of LINNÆUS, which, in English, is known by the name of the *silvery-eyed, red sparus*. In French it is more generally termed *pagel*; *pag-au* being a provincial appellation for the sparus of this species.

## ADVERTISEMENT.

THE taste for reading travels is at the present day become so general, that a work of this nature, if executed with a certain degree of intelligence, can scarcely fail to meet with a favourable reception : it conveys instruction while it affords amusement ; it brings us acquainted with men and customs that were either imperfectly or not at all known to us ; and the contrast that necessarily exists between the manners of a distant country and those of our own, diffuses, in such narratives, an attractive singularity, which, at once, combines the interest of fable and the merit of history.

But not unfrequently the pleasure experienced in the perusal of these narratives is interrupted by long nautical details, which can be useful to seamen alone ; and, by minute, though scientific descriptions, which are entertaining only to naturalists : besides, in the greater part of the accounts of travels which are published, one either finds accidents common to almost all travellers, or adventures the improbability of which destroys the interest that they inspire.

The “ *TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA,*” the First Part of which we now offer to the Public, are exempt from these defects. The style of M. OLIVIER is simple, clear, and concise :

his narrative bears the stamp of truth ; indeed, in his *INTRODUCTION*, he declares that he has adopted the idea of the celebrated VOLNEY, who has said that “ *travels ought to be written in the manner of history, and not in that of romance* \*.” Accordingly, our Author dwells not on trifles, though he leaves nothing important to be related by travellers who may hereafter visit the same countries ; and, without bewildering himself in the wide field of conjecture, he presents to his readers none but objects worthy of exciting the interest of the trader, the politician, the philosopher, and the man of science.

The picture which he exhibits of CONSTANTINOPLE is both boldly drawn and strongly coloured. In fact, it required a masterly pencil to paint a city no less remarkable from the natural beauties of its situation, the diversified scenery of its environs, the commodiousness of its harbour, and the mild temperature of its climate, than from the blind policy and supineness of its government, the turbulent and ferocious disposition of its inhabitants, and the malignant influence of the plague, that destructive scourge by which it is so frequently ravaged.

His account of TROAS cannot but be particularly interesting to the classical scholar ; while his description of the principal islands of the Greek ARCHIPELAGO, and of the once-famous Isle of CRETE, must be equally satisfactory to him and to the general reader. Lastly, the

\* *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*

various engravings with which this work is enriched, will gratify curiosity, at the same time that they illustrate the text.

M. OLIVIER being already so well known as a naturalist of the first class by the different works which he has published \*, it would be superfluous here to point out his merits in that line ; we shall therefore content ourselves with observing that he appears to us to have completely verified the opinion entertained of his *general* talents by those who selected him as a person qualified for the important mission on which he was employed. Of the truth of the assertion, this First Part of his “ *TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE. EGYPT, AND* “ *PERSIA,*” not only affords sufficient proof ; but justifies every confidence that the Second and Third Parts, with which he has also promised to favour us as soon as they are respectively completed, will enable us to accomplish the task on which we have entered, in such a manner as to leave no disappointment in the mind of our readers.

LONDON, August the 7th, 1801.

\* 1. *Entomologie ou Histoire naturelle des Insectes, avec leurs caractères génériques et spécifiques, leur description, leur synonyme, et leur figure enluminée.* In 4 Vols. large 4to, with upwards of sixty plates to each.

2. *Dictionnaire des Insectes, faisant partie de l'Encyclopédie méthodique.* 4 Vols. 4to. This work is not yet finished : it will consist of seven or eight volumes.

3. *Mémoires d'Histoire naturelle et d'Agriculture,* which it would here be too tedious to enumerate.

✂ To spare the reader the trouble of reference, the Translator here inserts

# A TABLE, SHEWING THE CORRESPONDING DAYS OF THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH CALENDARS.

<sup>1</sup> <i>Vendémiaire.</i>	<sup>3</sup> <i>Frimaire.</i>	<sup>5</sup> <i>Pluviôse.</i>	<sup>7</sup> <i>Germinal.</i>	<sup>9</sup> <i>Frairial.</i>	<sup>11</sup> <i>Thermidor.</i>
1 Sept. 22	1 Nov. 21	1 Jan. 20	1 March 21	1 May 20	1 July 19
2 23	2 22	2 21	2 21	2 21	2 20
3 24	3 23	3 22	3 22	3 22	3 21
4 25	4 24	4 23	4 23	4 23	4 22
5 26	5 25	5 24	5 25	5 24	5 23
6 27	6 26	6 25	6 26	6 25	6 24
7 28	7 27	7 26	7 27	7 26	7 25
8 29	8 28	8 27	8 28	8 27	8 26
9 30	9 29	9 28	9 29	9 28	9 27
10 Oct. 1	10 30	10 29	10 30	10 29	10 28
11 2	11 Dec. 1	11 30	11 31	11 30	11 29
12 3	12 2	12 31	12 April 1	12 31	12 30
13 4	13 3	13 Feb. 1	13 2	13 June 1	13 31
14 5	14 4	14 2	14 3	14 2	14 Aug. 1
15 6	15 5	15 3	15 4	15 3	15 2
16 7	16 6	16 4	16 5	16 4	16 3
17 8	17 7	17 5	17 6	17 5	17 4
18 9	18 8	18 6	18 7	18 6	18 5
19 10	19 9	19 7	19 8	19 7	19 6
20 11	20 10	20 8	20 9	20 8	20 7
21 12	21 11	21 9	21 10	21 9	21 8
22 13	22 12	22 10	22 11	22 10	22 9
23 14	23 13	23 11	23 12	23 11	23 10
24 15	24 14	24 12	24 13	24 12	24 11
25 16	25 15	25 13	25 14	25 13	25 12
26 17	26 16	26 14	26 15	26 14	26 13
27 18	27 17	27 15	27 16	27 15	27 14
28 19	28 18	28 16	28 17	28 16	28 15
29 20	29 19	29 17	29 18	29 17	29 16
30 21	30 20	30 18	30 19	30 18	30 17

<sup>2</sup> <i>Brumaire.</i>	<sup>4</sup> <i>Nivôse.</i>	<sup>6</sup> <i>Ventôse.</i>	<sup>8</sup> <i>Floréal.</i>	<sup>10</sup> <i>Méidor.</i>	<sup>12</sup> <i>Fruiridor.</i>
1 Oct. 22	1 Dec. 21	1 Feb. 19	1 April 20	1 June 19	1 Aug. 18
2 23	2 22	2 20	2 21	2 20	2 19
3 24	3 23	3 21	3 22	3 21	3 20
4 25	4 24	4 22	4 23	4 22	4 21
5 26	5 25	5 23	5 24	5 23	5 22
6 27	6 26	6 24	6 25	6 24	6 23
7 28	7 27	7 25	7 26	7 25	7 24
8 29	8 28	8 26	8 27	8 26	8 25
9 30	9 29	9 27	9 28	9 27	9 26
10 Nov. 31	10 30	10 28	10 29	10 28	10 27
11 1	11 31	11 March 1	11 30	11 29	11 28
12 2	12 Jan. 1	12 2	12 May 1	12 30	12 29
13 3	13 2	13 3	13 2	13 July 1	13 30
14 4	14 3	14 4	14 3	14 2	14 31
15 5	15 4	15 5	15 4	15 3	15 Sept. 1
16 6	16 5	16 6	16 5	16 4	16 2
17 7	17 6	17 7	17 6	17 5	17 3
18 8	18 7	18 8	18 7	18 6	18 4
19 9	19 8	19 9	19 8	19 7	19 5
20 10	20 9	20 10	20 9	20 8	20 6
21 11	21 10	21 11	21 10	21 9	21 7
22 12	22 11	22 12	22 11	22 10	22 8
23 13	23 12	23 13	23 12	23 11	23 9
24 14	24 13	24 14	24 13	24 12	24 10
25 15	25 14	25 15	25 14	25 13	25 11
26 16	26 15	26 16	26 15	26 14	26 12
27 17	27 16	27 17	27 16	27 15	27 13
28 18	28 17	28 18	28 17	28 16	28 14
29 19	29 18	29 19	29 18	29 17	29 15
30 20	30 19	30 20	30 19	30 18	30 16

1<sup>st</sup> Complementary Day, Sept. 17  
 2 - - - - 18  
 3 - - - - 19  
 4 - - - - 20  
 5 - - - - 21

## INTRODUCTION.

A CELEBRATED author has said that travels ought to be written in the manner of history, and not in that of romance\*: he has proved to us in a clear, precise, and energetic style, that subjects the most serious, and discussions the most important, might interest every class of readers, and still please more than the flowery style, the romantic episodes, and the exaggerated or false descriptions of most travellers.

Penetrated, like him, with this truth, I have, in the following narrative, avoided all singular anecdotes, all humourous stories, more fit to amuse than instruct. I was not willing to employ those over-brilliant colours which may be captivating for a moment, but the effect of which is transient. The sight of a deserted field, covered with myrtles, or that of a garden confusedly planted with date and orange trees, could never inflame my imagination; and I have frequently surveyed, without astonishment, truncated capitals and scattered fragments of columns.

Not but I have been struck by the beauty of situations; not but the aspect of DELOS and of ATHENS, of ALEXANDRIA and of BABYLON,

\* VOLNEY, *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*

has drawn from me sighs. I never contemplated the BOSPHORUS, the PROPONTIS, and the HELLESPONT without being moved, without excusing CONSTANTINE, and without saying to myself, that Nature would have done every thing for these countries, had she not at the same time placed there the plague and a fanatic people, enemies to the arts and sciences.

CONSTANTINOPLE is interesting under so many considerations, that I thought it my duty not to quit that capital of the Ottoman Empire without giving a rapid sketch of the manners of a singular people, who appear to have been at first no more than a great religious and military society; without making known some of their customs; without casting an eye on their government; and without pointing out that despotism, so terrible towards tributary subjects, preserves, in regard to the Turks, moderate forms from which it would be dangerous to deviate. If the sultan and his ministers are invested with great power, the people are ever ready to rise if they abuse it.

TROAS recalled to my mind the fame of HOMER, and that war, true or fabulous, in which all the gods of OLYMPUS took a part. I trod with respect on the ashes of the Greek and Trojan heroes. I sought with eagerness the position of that famous city which for ten years sustained the efforts of all the Greeks united. I followed with pleasure the course of the SIMOÏS and SCAMANDER; but I lamented to see so few inhabitants, and so little culture on a soil which might be covered with luxuriant harvests.

The Islands of the ARCHIPELAGO appeared to me dry, parched, and mountainous, although productive, and situated in a happy climate. The Greeks who inhabit them, remote from the tyrants who oppress their country, have preserved their gaiety, their activity, and their love of independence: those of SCIO, protected by their privileges, shew themselves the most active, the most industrious, and the most honest of all.

The Island of CRETE, so wretched, so poor at this day, is interesting from its productions, from its advantageous position, from the remembrance of its ancient inhabitants, and from the Sphachiots who, on the top of their mountains, brave the arrogance of the Turks, and mock all their efforts.

EGYPT gave me the idea of an extreme fecundity, by means of a continued labour, and a wise and intelligent distribution of the waters of the NILE. EGYPT, situated between ASIA and AFRICA, between the seas of EUROPE and those of INDIA, appeared to one of the greatest men of antiquity, and to him, among us, who shews himself still greater, worthy to be the central point of commerce of all nations. The river which gives life to this burning region, as regular in its increase, as the course of the stars and the movement of the universe, is well calculated to astonish even those who know how to observe the progress of Nature, and who are familiarized to her phenomena.

Following the example of all travellers, we did not quit EGYPT without paying to the pyramids our tribute of admiration, without descending into those vast catacombs which the hand of man has not feared to profane.

SYRIA, extremely diversified in its productions, in its climate, and its soil; SYRIA, burning on the sea-shore, temperate on the declivity of the mountains, cool on their summit, is beyond those mountains no more than a steril, uninhabited country. The harbours of TYRE and of SIDON must recall to our mind the activity and industry of the nations which made them the emporium of an extensive commerce; and ALEXANDRETTA would, perhaps, have answered the views of the conqueror by whom it was founded, had not the most unwholesome air in the world been a constant obstacle to it. Why must that interesting region be oppressed by the Turks, partly governed by the most wicked man on earth\*, and be, besides, exposed to those dreadful scourges, earthquakes. We beheld the deplorable effects of that which was felt at LATAKIA during our stay in PERSIA.

If the upper part of MESOPOTAMIA is extremely fertile and temperate, the other is arid and burning. The banks of the EUPHRATES, and of the TIGRIS, formerly so peopled, are almost entirely desert, or are no longer at this day frequented but by those tribes of Arab shepherds, whose manners interest us, and whose patriarchal customs and

\* DGEZZAR-pacha.

Jaws merit for some moments all the attention of the philosopher. We shall not confound them with those wandering hordes, not very numerous, incessantly in a state of war, and ever ready to carry off flocks and plunder travellers.

BABYLONIA, whose soil is level, whose lands are deep, must have been a granary of abundance, when inhabited by a civilized, industrious, and agricultural people : it is not surprising that astronomy should have taken birth in this country where the eternal clearness of a very pure sky was incessantly inviting man to contemplate the stars and to follow their movements. At present the excessive heat of the sun, increased by the abandonment and nakedness of almost all the lands, obliges man, in summer, to pass the day in subterraneous caves, and the night in the fields or on the roof of the houses. A wind which occasions *asphyxy*, and which we shall distinguish from the burning wind of AFRICA, is sometimes felt in these countries, while clouds of locusts frequently ravage the crops ; and yet the stupid and resigned Mussulman never makes the smallest effort to guard against them.

In crossing the mountains occupied by the Curds, I shall have occasion to make known that warlike, pastoral, and agricultural people, who so greatly resemble the Medes their ancestors. To me they appeared the same, whether I observed them in countries, seemingly subject to the Ottoman dominion, or saw them exposed to the troubles and agitations which desolate their neighbours.

For upwards of sixty years a succession of ambitious men have uninterruptedly devastated PERSIA in order to govern it. The cities the most flourishing under the reign of the Sophis, present every where nothing but ruins : three-fourths of the inhabitants have perished, or fled to the more tranquil and fertile regions of INDOSTAN. A stay of several months at the court, for the accomplishment of a mission of the highest importance, furnished me with an opportunity of observing the great, of studying the common people, and of collecting interesting materials for the history of the intestine wars which have desolated that empire since the death of NADIR SHAH.

From KERMANCHA to CASBIN, from TEREHAN to ISPAHAN, and from that city to AMADAN, PERSIA offered to me only an elevated country, thickly covered with high mountains destitute of wood, and intersected by vast plains, the greater part uncultivated. All this space is cold in winter, but extremely hot in summer : it is, in general, very dry, and far from fertile. Productions are there obtained only by means of water, and it is by dint of labour alone that the inhabitants have succeeded in procuring springs sufficiently copious for all domestic wants and for the irrigation of the lands.

On our return, a terrible war, unexampled in the history of nations, permitted us not to embark in SYRIA ; and, notwithstanding the ardent wish of revisiting our country, notwithstanding the infirmities of BRUGIERE my colleague, and his well-founded aversion to travelling on

horseback, we were under the necessity of returning by land to CONSTANTINOPLE. We repaired to CYPRUS in the most dangerous season of the year. We crossed that island, the wonders of which the Greeks have justly extolled, and of which the Turks have made a place of infection and mortality. We quitted it as quickly as possible, and landed in CARAMANIA.

ASIA MINOR unites the productions of the coldest countries to those of the most temperate. Hot on the borders and in the environs of the sea, cold in the interior, elevated and adorned with wooded mountains, extensive plains, fertile and well watered, ASIA MINOR is, perhaps, the country on earth the most beautiful, the most diversified, and the most capable of supporting a great population. No country has coasts more winding, and harbours more numerous, more safe, and more spacious.

On our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we requested a passport from the agent of the European power which covered the sea with its ships: it was refused to us. This refusal procured us the advantage of seeing ATTICA, the Isthmus of CORINTH, the Gulf of LEPANTO, and the Islands of ITHACA, CEPHALONIA, and CORFU; but it was, perhaps, the cause of the death of my colleague. At ANCONA, BRUGUIÈRE sunk under a disorder occasioned by the fatigues of a long journey, and the sudden grief of having lost a brother in the very country where we had just landed.

BRUGUIÈRE will long be mourned by his friends: he will incessantly be regretted by him who had such frequent occasion to appreciate the qualities of his heart, to admire the resources of his head, and the depth of his knowledge; by him who would have stood so much in need of his assistance for the publication of the interesting articles of natural history resulting from these travels. No one had gone deeper than BRUGUIÈRE into the class so difficult, so numerous, and so diversified of worms, mollusca, and conchyliæ. He had applied himself betimes to the study of botany, and he was no stranger to the other parts of natural history. It is much to be lamented that an astonishing memory and the greatest facility of expressing himself had made him neglect to note down his observations, and had even, at all times, rendered him very idle with respect to writing.

Although deprived of my coadjutor for the particular publication of the articles of natural history inedited or little known, I shall not the less unremittingly employ myself about them as soon as the historical part shall be in a state of greater forwardness, and a general peace shall again promote, among us, a brisker sale of works of literature.

The taste of BRUGUIÈRE, his sickly state, and his decided predilection for a retired and quiet life, not having permitted him, in the course of these travels, to apply himself to the same kind of study that I did, and to transport himself to all the places where observations

were

were to be made, and facts to be collected, I was obliged to undertake alone that part of the travels which relates to the manners, the customs, and the laws of the nations that we visited. In order to render it more interesting, I neglected not to cast my eye towards our political and commercial relations. Geography, both ancient and modern, geonics, and general physics, must necessarily at the same time have fixed my attention ; and if I have not imparted to my labours all the interest of which they were susceptible, it is because the powers of man, as is well known, always fall far short of his wishes.

I must here express my gratitude to Citizens RUFIN, DANTAN, and FRANQUINI, whom I for a long time consulted at CONSTANTINOPLE, and who were ever ready to reply to my questions relative to the customs and laws of the country. The last two even carried their complaisance so far as to procure me the means of interrogating the best-informed Turks of the capital, and to serve as interpreters between them and me, whenever I wanted them. I am also indebted to some merchants and commissaries of commercial relations, whom I shall consider it my duty to name, for information respecting the trade and productions of the LEVANT ; lastly, I am indebted to Mr. JOHN HE'RATHIUS, an Armenian physician and priest, born at ISPAHAN, for some details relative to the history of the intestine wars of PERSIA.

## ESTIMATE

*Of the MONIES, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of which mention is made in this work.*

THE *Turkish purse* is worth 500 piastres, nearly 1000 livres or *circa* 42l. sterling.

The *piastre* is divided into 40 parats which may be estimated at 2 livres or 1s. 8d. sterling.

The *parat* is divided into three aspres : it is equivalent to 5 centimes.

The *Turkish piastre* was formerly worth about 3 livres or 2s. 6d. sterling ; but since the successive adulteration of the coin under the last sultans, the piastre is worth little more than 1 livre 50 centimes. We have, however, valued it at 2 livres in imitation of the French merchants.

The *kilo* is a measure of capacity which is employed for grain only. Four kilos and a half make nearly the load of MARSEILLES. A kilo of wheat weighs from eighteen to twenty-two okes, according to the quality of this wheat.

The *oke* is a little more than three pounds two ounces MARSEILLES weight, and a little less than forty ounces and a half PARIS weight, or one thousand two hundred and thirty-nine grams.

The *cantaar* is forty-four okes.

The *peek* is a measure of length. Four are made use of at CONSTANTINOPLE : the smallest, or that employed for silk stuffs, scarcely reaches two feet (65 centimetres).

That for cloths of cotton and wool does not reach two feet one inc' (68 centimetres).

That of the arsenal nearly reaches twenty-six inches (70 centimetres and a half).

The peek of masonry, or the great peek, is two feet four inches three lines, or 76 centimetres and a half \*.

\* The Paris foot is equal to 12.789 English inches.—*Translator.*

TRAVELS  
TO  
CONSTANTINOPLE,  
TO THE ISLANDS  
OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,  
AND TO  
CRETE.

CHAPTER I.

*Departure from Paris.—Stay at Toulon, and at Marseilles.—Departure from this latter city with a convoy bound to the Levant.—Behaviour of the officers of the ship.—Arrival at Constantinople.*

AT the end of October 1792, the executive provisional council\*, penetrated with the advantages which were likely to result from Travels into the OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, and PERSIA, respecting commerce, agriculture, natural history, general physics, geography, the medical art, and even our political relations with TURKEY; persuaded that those interesting countries had not been considered under their true point of view, or had been so but

\* The Members of this council were Citizens MONGE, GARAT, ROLAND, LEBRUN, CLAVIERE, and PACHE.

partially, and that there still remained much information for us to acquire respecting them, fixed their choice, for the accomplishment of this object, on citizen BRUGUIÈRE and myself; gave us various instructions, as well verbal as in writing, and urged us to set out as expeditiously as we possibly could, in order to avail ourselves of the *BELETTE* sloop of war, fitted out at TOULON, and ready for sailing.

We hastened to make our preparations, to purchase some instruments of physics and natural history, fit for our observations and researches, and to provide ourselves with a few books, both for our amusement and instruction. We left PARIS on the 7th of November, at eight o'clock in the evening, after having spent the day with a few friends, from whom we have received in our absence, and during the storms of the revolution, the most sincere proofs of attachment. On my return, I have had the satisfaction to learn that, through a thousand dangers, still more from their firmness and courage than from their prudence, they had happily got safe to port, and that the Republic might still reckon them among her best citizens.

Having arrived at AVIGNON, Citizen BRUGUIÈRE took the road of MONTPELLIER, in order to embrace his father, his wife, and his children, and settle some family affairs; I took that of the department of the VAR, in order to embrace my parents at the ARCS, and leave, at SAINT TROPEZ, my wife in the arms of hers. We repaired much about the same time to TOULON, whence we hoped to sail the first fine weather; but for reasons which it is unnecessary to set forth here, the sloop waited in the road a long time for sailing orders, and, after two or three months of expectation, she was ordered to be put out of commission.

Surprised at so long a delay, and sorry to lose our time, or not to employ it in a useful manner, notwithstanding the hopes which were given us from day to day,

day, that we should shortly fail, we wrote to the Minister for foreign affairs, in order to beg him to hasten our departure, or to recall us, if the government no longer conceived our travels useful to the service of the Republic. The Minister answered us that he had just given orders to Citizen GUIs, correspondent for foreign affairs at MARSEILLES, to look out for a neutral vessel whose commander might be willing to take us on board, as well as a ship-builder, two lapidaries, and other different citizens whom the government was sending to CONSTANTINOPLE, conformably to the requests which had been made to it by the reis-effendi and the captain-pacha. We immediately repaired to MARSEILLES, and, till we set sail, we employed ourselves in visiting the manufactories, in procuring information respecting the countries over which we were going to travel, and particularly concerning the trade which this town carried on with the LEVANT.

The war had not yet interrupted our commercial connexions with TURKEY. The MEDITERRANEAN was still free; but, from one moment to the other, the English and the Spaniards, with whom we were already at war, might make their appearance there with forces superior to those which we had to oppose to them. It was our interest to hasten the hour of our departure. Citizen GUIs neglected nothing to find us a neutral vessel; but as his measures were useless, we had recourse to a French Captain of a foreign-built ship, bound to CONSTANTINOPLE, and which was to make part of the convoy that was getting ready at MARSEILLES for the different sea-ports of the LEVANT.

Till then we had flattered ourselves with making this voyage with Citizen SEMONVILLE, appointed for some time past Ambassador of the Republic to the Ottoman PORTE; but an order of the Minister recalled him to PARIS when every thing was ready for his departure, and we were waiting only for a fair wind for sailing.

We left MARSEILLES on the 22d of April 1793, to the number of about twenty-nine sail, convoyed by the *SIBYLLE* frigate, commanded by Citizen RONDEAU. The weather was fine, the wind faint, and the sea tolerably smooth. The next morning we entered the road of Toulon, where we remained till the 29th of April, in order to wait for some straggling vessels.

On the 25th, we had the satisfaction to see a numerous convoy arrive from SMYRNA, SALONICA, and the principal sea-ports of the LEVANT, escorted by the *Moderste*, a frigate commanded by Captain VENEL. An account had already reached TOULON of the interesting particulars of his engagement with the fleet of the famous captain of a privateer LAMBRO, of whom we shall have occasion to speak elsewhere.

For two days past the wind had blown with violence from the north-west, when we got under way, under convoy of the *Duquesne* of 74 guns, commanded by Captain VENCE, the *SIBYLLE* frigate of 40, the *Sérieuse* frigate, and the *Sensible* and *Rossignol* sloops of war. The wind held for a few days in the same quarter, so that we soon got sight of the west coast of SARDINIA, and shortly after of that of AFRICA. The sea was so high, that almost all the passengers were confined to their beds. I was very ill till we got off MALTA, and indisposed from time to time by sea-sickness during the whole passage.

Scarcely had we sailed a week from Toulon, when we discovered, on the one side, the south coast of SICILY, and, on the other, Gozzo and MALTA. After having passed through this channel, the weather became finer, the sea was less rough, and the wind lulled, but it continued to blow from the north-west quarter. We saw some birds of passage, such as quails, turtles, come and rest themselves on the ship's rigging. On the twelfth day, we perceived the

Island

Island of SAPIENZA and the mountains of the MORREA, and, before night, we made Cape MATAPAN; on the thirteenth, we found ourselves between CARRIGO and the Island of CRETE. There it was that the *Duquesne* left us in order to return to TOULON, and that Captain RONDEAU took the command of the convoy. The next day, we perceived at a very great distance the mountains of the Island of CRETE, distinguished by seamen, by the name of the *WHITE MOUNTAINS*.

A part of the convoy bound to EGYPT and SYRIA, separated from us under the protection of the *Serieuse*, and took their route to the eastward, while we directed ours to the northward. We had been at sea no more than fifteen days, when we found ourselves, at sun-set, near the entrance of the port of MILO. The wind was to the north: for some time, we thought that we were going to anchor in the harbour of that island; but we discovered our mistake by the signal which was made to ply to windward, till Captain RONDEAU had received, on board his ship, a pilot from the island.

The French government maintained at MILO and at ARGENTIERA, some old seamen to serve as pilots to ships of war which might arrive in these difficult parts. The captains were expressly forbidden to neglect a precaution on which the safety of the ship might depend, in a sea strewn with shoals, stormy in winter, and so narrow as to oblige a navigator sometimes to gain a port or to shelter himself from a gale of wind, in a cove or behind some island. It is necessary, in this case, that long experience should have pointed out to him the passages which he may attempt, the dangers which he ought to avoid, and that he should know, by the lead, all the places where he may cast anchor without exposing himself to destruction.

On the sixteenth day, the wind having shifted to the south, we found ourselves off the Island of SERPHO: we had astern of us the shoal called the FALCONERA, and the Island of SIPHANTO bore from us south-east. In the evening, we passed between the Islands of ZEA and THERMIA; on the seventeenth, we steered for Cape DORO. We soon left astern ANDROS and TINO, which lie so near to each other, that they appeared to us to be confounded; on the eighteenth day, we passed IPSERA, and made MITYLENE. The wind continued to blow lightly from the south quarter, the weather was very fine; in the morning, the ships bound to SMYRNA, under convoy of the *SIBYLLE*, had shaped their course to the eastward; those for SALONICA, under charge of the *SENSIBLE*, had taken their route to the west-north-west: we continued, to the number of three, ours for CONSTANTINOPLE, under convoy of the *ROSSIGNOL*.

Our vessel was so bad a sailer, that till then we had been constantly one of the sternmost of the convoy, and the sloops came frequently to take us in tow. Our officers, the most rude and most ignorant of all the seamen of the south of FRANCE, in such cases, vented a torrent of abuse so low and so disgusting, that we were obliged to shut ourselves up in our cabins, that we might not hear it: besides, both the captain and the chief mate, and especially the supercargo, behaved in the most unbecoming manner to all the passengers that the government was sending to the LEVANT, abusing some, threatening others, putting all to the shortest allowance, though provisions were in sufficient plenty on board, and the sum agreed for our passage and our messing was above the common price.

On the nineteenth day, we passed MITYLENE: we discovered the coast of TROAS and TENEDES; and in the evening, the cloudy weather making us apprehend some sudden squall, it was agreed, between the captains, to lie to, in order that they might not enter the channel of the DARDANELLES during

the night; but when it was so dark that our ship could not be perceived, our captain ordered the blinds of the great cabin-windows to be shut, and made sail to the northward. Citizen BRUN, ship-builder, as well as the superintendants of the workmen whom he was carrying with him, perceiving the manœuvre contrary to what had been ordered by the captain of the sloop of war, and agreed on between the captains of the ships, wished to make representations. According to custom, they received abuse and threats; the dispute became so serious, that all the passengers presented themselves on deck. For a long time it had been feared that men who shewed so much repugnance to be towed, wished to suffer themselves to be taken by some enemy's ship, or to run their vessel aground: the opportunity had not been favourable till then, but it became so on entering the channel. This fear, which I was far from sharing, and which I think was never well founded, naturally arose from the conduct of the three officers, and might easily take birth in the mind of persons exasperated by abusive and even insulting language, and from the uncomfortable and suffering condition in which we all were. What idea could we have of those men, who made serve for eighteen persons what could barely be sufficient only for ten, and who, after having partaken of our slender repast, made in a hurry, and on deck, sat down to another meal privately in their cabin morning and evening; who availed themselves alone of the greater part of the provisions which they ought to have shared with all, and, among others, with the wife of the ship-builder, pregnant and ill, and with children who suffered much from sea-sickness?

In order to put an end to the dispute, I represented that we had no right to concern ourselves in the management of the ship, but had that of having an eye to our own safety, by observing and drawing up an account in writing of what might happen on board since the captain had disobeyed the orders of the commanding-officer of the convoy. This observation had the effect which I had expected from it; the officers grew mild; they wished to persuade

suade us that they were such good seamen and so well acquainted with the coast as to enter without danger the channel during the night; that, however, since we were afraid, they would lie to and wait for day, as had been agreed. Almost all the passengers were quiet; but the shipwrights, more mistrustful than the others, because being seamen, they were better acquainted with the danger, alternately kept watch till daylight.

On the twentieth day of our departure, the 18th of May, we found ourselves, on rising, between TENEDOS and the coast of TROAS; and, about seven o'clock in the morning, we entered the channel with a rather fresh breeze at east-south-east. The sloop of war lay to, and did not shape her course for SMYRNA till she was certain that we were out of all danger from privateers. Early in the day we passed GALLIPOLI, and in the evening we were becalmed in the sea of MARMORA.

On the twenty-first day, the weather was very fine, and the heat began to be felt; the wind was to the southward, but it was so faint, that we could make no progress on account of the contrary current. We remained the whole day to the north-west of the Island of MARMORA; but, during the night, the wind having blown with somewhat more strength, on the twenty-second day, in the morning, we enjoyed the sight of CONSTANTINOPLE, and, about ten o'clock, we entered the harbour.

CHAPTER II.

*Beauty of the site of Constantinople.—Stay in that city.—Detention at Trawnik, of the envoy of the Republic.—Conduct of the Porte.—Arrival of a Russian embassy extraordinary.*

IT is difficult to express the various sensations which a traveller experiences at the sight of this great city and of its inhabitants: its elevated position, the mixture of trees, houses, and minarets\* which it presents; the entrance of the BOSPHORUS, the harbour and suburbs of GALATA, PERA, and ST. DIMITRI; SCUTARI and the verdant hills which lie behind; the PROPONTIS with its islands; farther on, Mount OLYMPUS covered with snow; every where the variegated and fertile fields of ASIA and EUROPE—all this assemblage exhibits different pictures which captivate and astonish. One cannot tire in admiring the natural beauty of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, and in reflecting at the same time on the happy situation of that great city, whose supply of provisions is so expeditiously obtained, whose defence is so easy, and whose harbour is so safe, so commodious, and so extensive.

We hastened to land, and quit a vessel on board of which we had greatly suffered. We learnt with pleasure that the plague was not at CONSTANTINOPLE, and that no uneasiness was felt in that respect. We were conducted to the house of the first deputy of commerce: there, we were informed that Citizen DESCORCHES, envoy extraordinary to the Ottoman PORTE, appointed

\* A sort of steeple in the form of a pillar, in which is made a staircase for ascending to a gallery constructed towards the top: it overlooks all the houses, and frequently is more elevated than the mosque itself.

in the place of Citizen SEMONVILLE, who was then no longer expected, was arrived at TRAWNIK, and that he was arrested by the pacha, in consequence of the intrigues of the agents of the courts of ENGLAND, GERMANY, and RUSSIA ; that Citizen FONTON, elected provisional chairman in a meeting of merchants, after the departure of the ambassador CHOISEUL, had given in his resignation nearly a month before ; and that it was by means of the deputies of commerce that our relations with the PORTE were continued.

After having learned what it concerned us to know, the deputies gave us a janizary to conduct us to the suburb of PERA. It is in this suburb that the ambassadors, the agents of foreign courts, and almost all foreigners reside, with the exception of the merchants who are established at GALATA, being by that means nearer to the harbour and to their commercial affairs. PERA is one of the most populous quarters of the city, notwithstanding its distance from the port and from the centre of business, and the lodgings are extremely dear since the rich Armenians came to settle there, in order to be less exposed to exactions and the insults of the Turks, and to enjoy a little more liberty under the protection of the Europeans.

When we entered the city, we passed rapidly from the first impression of astonishment and admiration occasioned by the beauty of the prospects and by the sight of so many different objects, to a second impression of surprise and distaste. We were disagreeably struck to see it so dirty and so ill built : the streets are narrow, and badly paved ; the houses are irregular, mean, and constructed with earth and wood. We were surprised at the silence which reigns every where, at the haughty look and grave carriage of the Mussulmans, at the humble, timid, and servile air of the Jews, Armenians, and even of the Greeks : this contrast is so striking, that the stranger guesses, from the carriage of the man, whether he be a Mussulman

or Raya \*, without yet knowing the manner of distinguishing them by their manner of dressing their head or their feet.

CONSTANTINOPLE, on our arrival, was no longer such an abode as it had been a few years before. The revolution which was taking place in FRANCE, had caused its effects to be felt even in the LEVANT; it had divided the French, and expelled from their houses gaiety and pleasure: several had already put themselves under foreign protection. The war had just suspended trade, and interrupted our communications with FRANCE. The palace of the ambassador was deserted; those of the other legations were shut against us; almost all the drogumans had emigrated; the monks and priests of the country described FRANCE under the most disgusting colours; the Greek women, who before neglected no means to please the French, and to receive their homages, no longer durst give themselves up to them, because they were reprobates whose company was to be prohibited, whose approach even it was necessary to dread.

True it is that the triumph of the priests was very short, and that our successes in EUROPE, by giving the lie to the gross impostures which our enemies took a pleasure in spreading concerning all the French, presented us in a more favourable and truer light. The constraint of the women did not last, and, on our return from PERSIA, CONSTANTINOPLE was an infinitely more agreeable place of residence than on our departure.

The presence of a French agent at the Ottoman PORTE might counteract the projects and derange the hostile measures which several of the European governments had just taken against FRANCE. It was of importance

\* Thus are called tributary subjects, such as Greeks, Jews, and Armenians.

to prevent the PORTE from acknowledging the French Republic, and admitting her ambassador : it was necessary to do more, to involve it, if possible, in the coalition formed at PILNITZ, and ruin, at all events, the trade of the French in the LEVANT. Citizen DESCORCHES, envoy extraordinary of the Republic, detained for some time at TRAWNIK, obtained permission to come to CONSTANTINOPLE only as a simple individual. He arrived twenty days after us, under a borrowed name, and also under the modest title of merchant. He did not reside in the French palace, and obtained from the PORTE no public character. Our political and commercial relations with this government continued to take place through the medium of the deputies whom the merchants elected annually for the affairs relative to their commerce.

It appears that, at this epoch, the PORTE, faithful to its principles, was not willing to take a part in what was passing in EUROPE, and that it was not sorry that the christians, whom it hates and despises, should make war with each other ; it temporized, according to its custom, and waited events. The people saw, with pleasure, war begun between FRANCE, GERMANY, and RUSSIA ; they hoped, by this means, to retake the CRIMEA from the Russians, and thence be revenged for their defeats. It was perceived in all the sea-ports of the LEVANT, that if the government no longer protected the French with the same warmth, the people, on their side, were better disposed towards them.

In the mean time an embassy extraordinary on the part of RUSSIA was emphatically announced : already the Greeks of PERA were calculating the immense profits which they were going to make. The women of intrigue were to find lovers who would indemnify them for the privation of the French ; every miss proposed, for her own share, to find in this suite a  
 husband :

husband ; the papas \* saw in it new penitents : houses were hired and furnished beforehand : the handsomest dresses, the most beautiful attire issued from the wardrobe to be repaired. People, when they met, complimented each other on this grand embassy : they expressed wishes for its expeditious and happy arrival ; all were in the most lively impatience.

We then lodged, as well as several other foreigners, at the house of a French traiteur, whose wife was a Greek woman. He was a fool and a drunkard. Led away by his wife, as foolish as mischievous, he put himself under the protection of RUSSIA, and signified to us that we must lay aside our three-coloured cockade, or leave his house. “ Such are,” added he, “ the orders which I have received from my new ambassador ” We made some attempts to reclaim a man hurried away, in spite of himself, into an inconsiderate measure. We observed to him that he turned out at once ten or twelve persons who occupied his lodgings, who promoted his cookery, and yielded him a considerable profit : every thing was useless. “ The Russians,” said his wife to us disdainfully, “ will certainly contrive to make us amends “ for this loss.” We left the house immediately, and went to occupy the lodging of the *Jeunes-de-Langue* †, which was vacant from their desertion.

After having been a long time expected, the embassy arrived : it was numerous and splendid. The delirium of the Greeks was complete, and was prolonged for some days ; but ere long they perceived that they had deceived themselves by an illusion ; they soon found that the Russian officer had no great pecuniary means, and that the foldier was on his ration. Besides, there appeared very seasonably a friendly warning of the general-ambassador, by which he gave notice that he would not pay the debts of his officers, and that every one was to look to himself.

\* Greek priests.

† Pupils intended for drogumans.

The French who were at CONSTANTINOPLE, found it necessary, in these circumstances, to conduct themselves with prudence, and, nevertheless, to display all their courage. Hatred against those who had remained faithful to their country, had arrived to such a pitch that the servants of the ambassador, a few soldiers, and the greater part of the Russian officers insulted them in the streets, and snatched from them the three-coloured cockade. A great number of complaints were made, on this subject, to the PORTE, through the medium of Citizen DESCORCHES, without it appearing to wish to apply any remedy. The patience of the French lasted for some time, but at length it had a period; and, though there were not then two hundred, including the merchants and their clerks, people commonly very peaceable, and though the embassy was composed of eight hundred persons, the greater number resolved to arm themselves, and to repel by force every insult that should be offered to them. Two or three pistols loaded only with powder, discharged opportunely at the officers, the proposal made to those who displayed most boldness, to draw their sword, soon put a stop to every insult, and produced an order from the general-ambassador not to provoke any longer men so hasty and so petulant.

A little time after, there arrived a German dancer, an excellent horseman, who thought to make a fortune among the Turks, by opening, at the extremity of the street of PERA, a sort of amphitheatre. This project appeared inconsiderate to those who were acquainted with Oriental manners, and the quick and terrible effects of the plague. They were persuaded that it would not succeed; but they little expected that the German internuncio would arrogate to himself the police of this public place, and that he would forbid his *protégé* to admit there any individual wearing the three-coloured cockade. The pleasantries to which this ridiculous conduct gave rise, soon induced the internuncio to disavow it. The dancer, on his side, frightened at the smallness of the first receipts, publicly made *amende honorable*, and neglected no

means of repairing the losses which his submission to the orders that he had received had at first occasioned him.

What contributed, on the one hand, to the insolence of some agents of CATHERINE and FRANCIS, and, on the other, to the weak and wavering conduct of the PORTE, was that TOULON had just been delivered up to the English, and that people were persuaded that the Jacobins (thus it is that almost all the French were at that time distinguished) would soon be punished for their audacity. Fortunately TOULON was retaken, and then the PORTE appeared to wish to protect us a little more effectually.

If the Russians and the Germans of those two legations conducted themselves, at that period, with the greatest indecorum towards us, and in a manner little worthy of the rank which they held, it must be confessed that this was not the case with the greater part of the other legations ; and, were we not afraid of committing them with their government, we might quote a great number of persons who beheld with pleasure the efforts which the French were making to level the throne, and give themselves a free and constituted government.

## CHAPTER III.

*Character of the Mussulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews.—Population of Constantinople.—Means of existence of its inhabitants.*

CONSTANTINOPLE affords a mixture of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Europeans, whence results a very great diversity in manners, religion, and language. The Turks are there much more numerous than the others, and are spread throughout the whole extent of the city and suburbs. The Greeks form nearly one sixth of the population; they have a quarter situated towards the head of the harbour, distinguished by the Greek name of *fanaraki* or *fanal*. A great number, however, inhabit PERA and GALATA, and live among the Franks\*. The Armenians are somewhat less numerous than the Greeks: they reside in the interior of the city, and in the suburbs; but the greater part of the rich, as we have before said, have some time since come to inhabit PERA, and establish themselves among the Franks, yet without mixing with them. The Jews are the least numerous: they live in the heart of the city. A few of them are established at PERA and GALATA, and serve as brokers to the merchants.

The ambassadors and agents of foreign powers at the Ottoman PORTE, and the Europeans whom commerce attracts to CONSTANTINOPLE, frequently form a population of upwards of two thousand persons. Almost all the seamen remain on board their ships. The merchants are settled at GALATA, in order to be more within reach of the harbour and the city; but the reason

\* This is the name given by the Turks indiscriminately to all Europeans.

which

which most determines them to inhabit that quarter, is that they occupy houses built in masonry ; that they have, for their goods, store-houses substantially constructed ; that all the windows have copper-shutters ; in a word, that they have neglected nothing for the safety of their persons and for the protection of their property from the fires to which this city is incessantly exposed.

There are none but Mussulmans, whether Turks or Arabs, who hold the places or employments of the government, the dignities of the empire, and who are received among the janizaries and into the other military corps, with the exception of the navy alone, in which the greater part of the sailors are Greeks, as we shall mention elsewhere more in detail. Some carry on an extensive commerce ; a greater number give themselves up to retail trade, and to the different mechanic arts, to the study of the laws and of religion, and to the art of writing.

The Mussulmans have, in general, little education, a great deal of fanaticism, and a ridiculous pride. The study of those who apply themselves to literature and to the sciences, relates to the Koran and to the interpretations which various Mussulman authors have given of it, to the laws which have emanated from it, and to the sentences of the civilians. They apply themselves to poetry, to the study of the Persian and Arabic, and to astrology. Few among them have any smattering of mathematics and astronomy. Their physic consists in some practices transmitted from father to son. They have no idea of natural history, physics, geography, naval affairs, and military tactics. They are acquainted with history only as far as it relates to them, and they are, with respect to other nations, and even with respect to those who have preceded them on the territory which they occupy, in the most complete ignorance. Almost all the arts are in a state of infancy, or are unknown among

them, if we except dyeing, the manufacture of various cloths, and that of sword and knife blades.

For a long time past the Europeans, and especially the French, have been desirous to transmit to them knowledge in some of the useful arts, and they have succeeded but imperfectly, because national pride, ignorance, and fanaticism oppose the measure. It is the French who have taught them to cast cannon and mortars, to build ships, to make muskets, bayonets, and gun-carriages, to work up iron and even silver, and to manufacture soap. National good-will had arrived to such a pitch that we should soon have taught them to dispense with our manufactures. The war which has just been declared, will, doubtless, bring about a new order of things. The conduct of the Turkish government and of individuals, in regard to the agents of the Republic and of the merchants settled among them, will unquestionably point out what is the most suitable manner of treating in future with this anti-social nation.

The Greeks are gay, witty, and cunning: they exercise various trades, carry on some commerce, apply themselves to maritime affairs, visit the different towns of the coast, and never travel far inland, except into European TURKEY. They delight in music and dancing. In the rest of the empire, they give themselves up to agriculture with a tolerable degree of intelligence. The rich are well informed, supple, and very intriguing; they study languages, and spare nothing to be employed as physicians, as drogue-men, or as men of business by the Turks who hold the first places of the empire. The ancient families court the honour of furnishing the first drogue-man of the PORTE, and of obtaining the sovereignty of WALACHIA and MOLDAVIA, notwithstanding the peril attached to those eminent places.

They are, in general, superstitious, timid, and exact observers of fasts and lents. The priests are very numerous, and exhibit manners somewhat austere.

The

The superior clergy are also well informed and tolerably rich: the rectors and other ecclesiastics are poor and very ignorant.

The Armenians are all traders; in the Ottoman Empire, it is they who are engaged in the greatest traffic, and who carry it on with the most intelligence. They are patient, economical, and indefatigable; they travel into the interior of ASIA and into INDIA; they have store-houses and correspondents every where. The greater part of them exercise mechanic arts; they are bankers, contractors, and men of business of the pachas or other great personages. They are reproached with sparing no means of enriching themselves, and of cheating, when they have an opportunity, in the quality of merchandise. Nevertheless, in endeavouring to gain the most they possibly can, they seldom fail in their engagements, and are punctual in the performance of their promises.

Austere in their manners, exact observers of the precepts of their religion, ignorant and superstitious, they need only education and a government less oppressive and more just than that of the Turks, to become a very estimable people.

The Jews present themselves here under colours far more unfavourable than in EUROPE. More ignorant, more poor, more fanatic, they give themselves up to every kind of trade and to all professions, even the very lowest. Few among them are physicians, droguemans, or men of business: not one is a cultivator. All trade to them is good if it yield a profit, however trifling it may be. The rich practise usury, lend money on pledges at an interest of two or three per cent. by the month, and even more according to circumstances. They are brokers, bankers, or traders. The Turkish custom-house officers make use of them for valuing goods and collecting the duties.

As austere in their manners as the Armenians, as greedy after gain, less delicate, less honest when they deal with a man of a different religion, the Jews live among each other, occupy remote quarters, and tremble at the sight of a Mussulman. Their anti-social religion will always separate them from other nations, and will insulate them, in a town, from the other inhabitants, as long as they shall be sufficiently ignorant to believe the laws of their legislator, and the puerile precepts of their rabbis, emanated from the Divinity.

The inhabitants of this great city, including those of the suburbs of PERA, GALATA, ST. DIMITRI, those of SCUTARI, and of all the villages situated on the BOSPHORUS, and in the environs, may be estimated at upwards of five hundred thousand, according to the daily consumption of flour that is there made. As no registers of births or deaths are kept in the Ottoman Empire, one can never correctly ascertain the population of the towns of TURKEY, where the manners and the mode of life of the inhabitants are so different from those of the Europeans, where the women are almost always shut up, and where the rich men go out of their houses as seldom as possible; but, in CONSTANTINOPLE, the government causing a distribution to be made of the flour and corn which are consumed in the city and its environs, and this distribution being well known\*, we can carry the population to five hundred thousand inhabitants, supposing that the men, women, and children eat a pound and a half of flour per day. If the reader observe that, in all the EAST, much less meat is eaten than in the north of EUROPE, but that a much greater consumption is there made of bread, rice, pastry, milk,

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• There are distributed about fifteen thousand kilos of corn per day, which are equivalent to three thousand one hundred and sixty-four septiers of *Paris*. The kilo weighs from eighteen to twenty-two oke, according to the quality of the corn. The oke is nearly equal to forty ounces and a half.

and

and fruit, he will judge that the calculation which we present is tolerably just. True it is that we must take into the account the introduction of some thousands of quintals of smuggled flour and corn, per day, which takes place notwithstanding the vigilance of the government \*; but this article is not sufficiently important to produce a difference of twenty thousand inhabitants †.

When we represent to ourselves in EUROPE a city like CONSTANTINOPLE, we are, doubtless, inclined to imagine that the means of existence there are similar to those of the great cities which we inhabit: we are persuaded that a great number of inhabitants possess landed property from which they derive an annual income, and that all the others live by their industry. We imagine that we see the environs of the city perfectly well cultivated, embellished with mansions, country-houses, and adorned with farms and gardens. We figure to ourselves that a city so happily situated affords public walks and places of recreation; in a word, we imagine that CONSTANTINOPLE resembles, in many respects, all the great cities of EUROPE.

If we cast our eyes on the immense population of CONSTANTINOPLE, we shall, perhaps, be astonished to see that almost all the inhabitants of that great city derive their means of existence from the Grand Signior, from the

\* Private persons are forbidden to sell or distribute corn or flour.

† ETON, in his *Survey of the Turkish Empire*, (2d edition, page 282) estimating the population of CONSTANTINOPLE, and taking the daily consumption of flour made in that city as the basis of his calculation, gives the following result. — *Translator*.

“ In CONSTANTINOPLE and its environs there are daily consumed from nine to eleven thousand kilos of corn. Experience has proved, that one person consumes nine kilos a year, one with another. One kilo of wheat is twenty-two okes, which renders eighteen okes of flour, of which they make twenty-seven okes of bread, as their bread is very moist, made into flat cakes seemingly half baked. An oke is about two pounds and three quarters English avoirdupois weight. According to this calculation, the medium number of inhabitants would be 426,000 souls.”

great employments of the government, from hiring themselves as servants, or from some private industry; that a great part of the money of the empire is swallowed up in the capital by means of imposts, custom-house duties, and the right of succession which the sovereign preserves over all his agents; by the confiscations in which he indulges, by the sale of all employments, of all places and all dignities, military, administrative, judicial, and religious; by the great revenues enjoyed by the mosques and the principal officers of the crown; lastly, by the voluntary or forced presents which every man in place annually makes to those who protect him with the PORTE, support and defend him, as well as to the men of business who watch over his interest, apprise him of all the changes which happen, and of all the dangers by which he is threatened.

Almost all the revenues of the royal treasury are consumed in CONSTANTINOPLE, because there it is that the national establishments are, and that, in the provinces, there neither are armies, navy, arsenals, nor fortresses kept up at the expense of the Grand Signior. The governors, pachas, mutselims or walwodes, very far from deriving emoluments from the PORTE, pour, on the contrary, annually into the treasury a sum more or less considerable, according to the extent and the nature of their government. The molhas, the cadis distribute justice for a duty of ten per cent. and various escheats. The janizaries and other soldiers receive a very moderate daily pay, taken from the revenues of the province: they equip themselves at their own expense, and join their colours in time of war, without the Grand Signior remitting the smallest sum of money for that purpose. The officers or agas have patrimonies for life, by means of which they are bound, on the first summons, to repair to the army, and to take with them, and at their cost, a certain number of soldiers.

All the establishments relating to the navy are at CONSTANTINOPLE. Ships of war are not repaired, equipped, and manned in any other port. It is there that ships are chiefly built. True it is that, at this moment, there are dock-yards at SINOPE, at the head of the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE and at RHODES, because those countries are within reach of the timber for ship-building; but the sum of money which issues from the capital, for this object, is by no means considerable, and is but a temporary remittance; besides, the pachas most frequently provide for these expenses.

The fortresses are kept up by the pachas on whose territories they are situated; accordingly, they are almost all in bad condition: the greater part of them even are falling into ruins. The Grand Signior, in this respect, is easily deceived, because he receives annually an account of expenses by which he is imposed on: and if the suspicion of infidelity or complaints induced him to send any one to the spot to verify the facts, a sum of money given by the pacha would almost always be sufficient for obtaining a favourable report; but were the latter displaced, or even were his head cut off, the successor would not, on that account, put the fortress into better condition; he would at first make a few unimportant repairs, and would interrupt them as soon as he had taken the means fit for insuring his impunity.

All the coin of TURKEY, if we except CAIRO, is struck at CONSTANTINOPLE, and yields for the moment a considerable revenue to the Grand Signior, because he has adulterated it to such a degree that it has not half of the value of that of the sultans his predecessors, and because he has caused it to be circulated for a value equal to that which it had before. Foreign coin has, indeed, greatly increased; but it is not yet at the price at which it ought to arrive, because the balance of trade is to the advantage of this empire. This is not the case with INDIA, as I shall say in another place, where TURKEY has scarcely

scarcely any thing to furnish. None but old coin is received there, and that of VENICE, HUNGARY, and SPAIN is still preferred, as most pure.

According to an approximate estimate, we may carry to two hundred millions of our livres all the money poured annually into CONSTANTINOPLE from the different towns and provinces of the empire. It appears that the revenue of the PORTE and of the Grand Signior \*, including the produce of the coining of specie, is about one hundred and fifty millions of our money †: the presents given to the men in place, the fees of men of business, the revenue of the mosques, that of the great, all these exceed not fifty millions. This calculation gives us upwards of three hundred livres per year for the maintenance of each individual; which is fully sufficient. I observe that the industry of CONSTANTINOPLE is limited almost entirely to the wants of the inhabitants, and that the principal trade which is there carried on, relates only to the consumption of the city. The carrying-trade is too inconsiderable to draw from abroad a sum of money of any importance.

It is seen, by what we have just said, that this city is, at the present moment, indebted for its great population only to the presence of the sovereign, to the expenses of his palace, and to all the public establishments which are there fixed. But if CONSTANTINOPLE profited at the same time of the advantages given it by its happy position between the BLACK SEA and the MEDITERRANEAN, between EUROPE and ASIA; if it turned to account the extent, the safety, and the convenience of its harbour, so suitable for favouring a great trade; if industry assumed a greater activity; if the objects of art were scattered throughout the whole empire and even beyond it; if the inhabitants sought in the culture of the lands the subsistence which they want and the aliment of a part of the manufactories; in short, if they succeeded in putting a

\* The revenue of the State is distinct from that of the Sultan.

† We shall give some details on this subject, in the course of these travels.

stop to the plague, that most destructive scourge of the human species, it is not to be doubted that this city would soon become of an immense extent and of a population perhaps too considerable.

The richest private individuals of the empire do not come hither to spend their income in effeminacy and idleness, or dissipate their fortunes in the hazards of play, in the pleasures of love, or in the luxury of the table. The agas or lords remain on their estates in order to preserve them, defend them, and make the most of them. The pachas cannot quit their government without an order of the sovereign. The molhas and the cadis exercise justice in the towns whither they have received orders to repair: both the one and the other come to intrigue at CONSTANTINOPLE only when they are displaced.

Most frequently they avoid even the too severe looks of the government: they have established agents, men of business who intrigue for them, who exculpate them with money, who level difficulties with money, and who procure them advancement with money. Here all dignities are sold to the highest bidder; all employments are put up to auction; no lucrative place is obtained without a present more or less considerable.

There is a class of men who have no other profession ~~than~~ that of lending, at an exorbitant interest, to the ambitious who could not obtain places without this means; to the extortioners who wish to cause their crimes to be forgotten and to maintain themselves in their places, to those whom a powerful enemy would wish to destroy, and to those, in short, who want, by a great and speedy sacrifice, to redeem their head threatened by the sword of the law or by the will of the sultan.

## CHAPTER IV.

*Of the seraglio of the Grand Signior.—Of the eunuchs, pages, gardeners, mutes, dwarfs, and capidgis.*

THE number of persons attached to the Grand Signior, to his palace, and to his different country-houses, is extremely considerable, and their maintenance very expensive; it may even be said that, in this respect, no sovereign in EUROPE can be compared to him from the interior luxury of the seraglio, the munificence which he there displays, and perhaps even from the riches which are there contained.

The law of MAHOMET allows, as is well known, every Mussulman, not only four legitimate wives; but it also authorizes him to take for concubines such a number of slaves as he pleases, and as his situation or his riches enable him to maintain. The Grand Signior, from a sentiment of pride or from political motives, must not marry like his subjects; he thinks himself too much above the rest of mankind to involve himself with a woman by the ties of marriage, and place her, in some measure, in the same rank as himself. He has an indeterminate number of female slaves destined to his pleasures and to give him successors. But among this great number, seven of them only, after having enjoyed more or less the favours of the sultan, are raised to a rank above the others: they become his favourites: it is they who participate most commonly in his pleasures, and who sometimes acquire no small degree of influence over public affairs. They are distinguished by the name of *Ka-deun* \*.

\* The *n* at the end of the word is pronounced.

The slave who becomes the mother of a boy is called *Hasske*: she has a house and slaves; she obtains a distinguished rank; she is treated with the greatest respect; she enjoys a sort of liberty in the interior of the harem\*; in a word, she approaches the sultan as often as she wishes. But if her son happen to die, she returns among the *Kadeuns* if she be not sent to the old seraglio.

The other slaves are called *Odaliks*, from the word *Oda*, which signifies chamber†. If one of them be pregnant, she is treated with a great deal of attention; the eunuchs serve her with the greatest respect when the sultan has as yet no male children; she finds herself, on the contrary, in a very critical situation when he has any by a slave in favour. She is fortunate then if she escape by miscarrying or seeing the being that she has just brought into the world smothered at its birth. For one of these odaliks to become *kadeun*, an honour extremely in request and ardently wished for by all, it is necessary that the Grand Signior should send one of the seven favourites to the old seraglio, the place of exile for his women who have misbehaved or have had the misfortune to displease.

To the old seraglio‡ are likewise sent all the wives of the sultan who has just died or has been deposed; they are there fed and maintained with some luxury, and served with much attention; but they can no longer go out of this place of retirement: it would not be decent in the eyes of the Mussulmans, that a slave, supposed to have enjoyed the favours of a sultan, should pass into the arms of another man. There is only the mother of the new sultan, called *Validai-Sultana*, who has her liberty, a palace, and revenues. The new harem is soon replenished, because traders come from all quarters to

\* *Harem* or sacred place, prohibited place: this is the lodging of the women, distinct from that of the men, among all the Muhometans.

† The *Odaliks* are distributed by chambers.

‡ *Eski serai*: it was constructed by MAHOMET II.

offer young slaves, and the pachas and the great are eager to present beauties capable of fixing the attention of the sovereign; they hope by that means to obtain instantly his good graces, and place about his person women who may one day be useful to them.

Travellers have improperly called sultanas the wives of the Grand Signior: this name is given in TURKEY only to the princeesses of the blood, daughters of a sultan, or, as we have said before, to the mother of him who occupies the throne. The daughters of the sultanas no longer bear any other name but that of *Kanoun-Sultana*.

It is very difficult, and perhaps impossible, to learn exactly the manner in which the female slaves are treated in the harem of the Grand Signior: never has the eye of the observer penetrated into this abode of hatred, jealousy, and pride; into this abode where pleasure and love have so seldom resided. But, according to the account of the women whose profession calls them thither, the reader may represent to himself three or four hundred black eunuchs, malicious, peevish, tormented by their impotence, cursing their nullity, endeavouring to counteract the female slaves intrusted to their charge; then a considerable number of young women whose hearts would willingly expand, whose senses are moved at the idea of the pleasures which they wish in vain to know, jealous of the happiness which they are persuaded that their rivals enjoy, cursing the overseers who perplex them, solely taken up with their toilet, with their dress, and with all the nonsense which idleness and ignorance can suggest to them; seeking, rather from vanity than from love, every means of pleasing a master too frequently disdainful. We may represent to ourselves, in short, a sultan young or old, mastered by ridiculous prejudices, without delicacy, often whimsical or capricious, alone in the midst of five or six hundred women all equally beautiful, in whom he gives birth to desires which he is unable to gratify, who enjoys with them no pleasures but such as  
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are too easy and without prelude, in which the heart has no share, and we shall have a true idea of what passes in the harem of the Grand Signior.

The charge of the women is intrusted only to black eunuchs, whose mutilation is such, that there remains no trace of their sex. Oriental jealousy has very rightly judged that such creatures were rather capable of inspiring sentiments of hatred and contempt, than those of affection and friendship, which would not have failed to take birth if the charge of the harem had been intrusted to women. It was not enough to condemn these unfortunate females to long privations, never to let them know of love only what was to excite in them desires, it was even necessary to deprive them of the consolation of opening their heart in the bosom of friendship. \*

The chief of the black eunuchs, called *Kişlar-Aga*, is one of the greatest personages of the empire : he it is who carries to the female slaves the will of his master ; he it is who announces to them the happiness which they have to please him \*. Independently of the authority which he exercises in the harem, he has the superintendence of all the imperial mosques ; he is charged with the general administration of all the pious foundations which relate to them ; he has the pre-eminence over the chief of the white eunuchs, and, what is more flattering to a slave, he more frequently approaches his master, and more commonly enjoys his confidence. His income is very considerable.

The *Khafne-Vekili* is the second eunuch of the seraglio : he replaces the *Kişlar-Aga* when he dies or is turned out of office. He has the general administration of the interior imperial treasure, which must be distinguished from the private treasure of the Grand Signior, administered by the *Khaf-nadar-Aga*, one of the pages of confidence. There are some other eunuchs raised in dignity, such as he who belongs to the queen-mother, he to whom the

\* All that is said respecting the handkerchief presented or thrown to the female slave who pleases the sultan, is false, and scarcely deserves to figure in a romance.

care of the princes is intrusted, those who serve the royal mosque of the sultana *Validai*, whither the slaves of the Grand Signior go to say their prayers; he who has the particular superintendence of the apartment of the *Hasséeke*, and a few others whose functions are less important.

The white eunuchs do not approach the women: they are employed out of the harem, and in the particular service of the sultan. They have the charge of the gates of the seraglio; they superintend and instruct the pages. Their chief is called *Capou-Agoffi*.

About the middle of the street of PERA, is remarked a considerable palace in which a great number of young lads are lodged, boarded and maintained at the expense of the State: they are called *Ichoglans*. They are destined to be pages to the sultan and to occupy the principal charges of the court. *Codjas* or preceptors come every day to teach them Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, and instruct them in writing and in the precepts of the Koran. They are all exercised in throwing the djerid\*, in riding on horseback, and in handling the sabre with dexterity: they are at the same time accustomed to the functions which they are to discharge about the person of the sovereign. A great number of them are likewise brought up in the interior of the seraglio. The white eunuchs, to whose care they are intrusted, treat them with the greatest severity, and punish them rigorously for the smallest fault that they commit. They are clothed in white, and fed with temperance. They are children of christians taken in war, or purchased in GEORGIA and CIRCASSIA: some of them come from various frontiers of the empire and from the States of BARBARY: sons of Mussulmans are also admitted there, since the Turks no longer carry on war against the christians with as many advantages as they did formerly.

\* A light stick, which supplies the place of the Arabic lance in mock-fights.

The Ichlogans who have well profited by their studies, those who display the most capacity and intelligence, are the first admitted among the pages; they successively fill the vacant places, and occupy in their turn the greatest offices of the seraglio. They frequently receive very lucrative commissions from the sovereign, and rich presents from those for whom they solicit and obtain employments.

Among the young people taken in war, purchased or brought from all quarters, the greater number, under the name of *Adjem-Oglan*, are intended for the meaner employments of the seraglio: porters, wood-cutters, cooks, butchers, water-carriers are made of them; in a word, servants of every sort: there are seldom among them sons of Mussulmans. When their number is considerable, some of them have been turned over among the gardeners.

The *Bostangees* or gardeners are about ten thousand in number; their chief is called *Bostangee-Bachi*; his power is very extensive. He has not only the absolute command over all the palaces and gardens of the Grand Signior; but he is, besides, at the head of the police of the environs of the capital and of the channel, as far as the mouth of the BLACK SEA. He represses debauchery, and punishes theft, and other excesses which are committed. He steers the caïque of the Grand Signior when he goes on the water, and he accompanies him every where on horseback when he goes out in state. This officer is of the number of the four *rickab agaleri* or officers of the court, obliged to accompany his highness wherever he goes in ceremony. The other three are called *buyuk imbrohor*, or great equerry, *kurchuk imbrohor*, or little equerry, and *capidjilar kiayassî*, or great chamberlain.

The bostangees are generally sons of Mussulmans; they receive a tolerably good pay, and are almost all married. They row with the greatest dex-

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terity the caïques of the sultan; they superintend his gardens and his palaces, and spread themselves over the villages and country-places of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the channel, in order to exercise there an active and salutary superintendence. Established under the reign of the first emperors, they were for a long time the nursery of the best soldiers. Those among them who displayed the most courage, the most strength, and above all the most fanaticism, were turned over among the janizaries.

According to oriental manners, there are no visits, no secret conferences, without the servants or slaves being present: politeness requires that coffee should be brought, that from time to time a pipe, filled and lighted, should be presented; and, according to the rank and dignity of the stranger, sherbet, essences, and perfumes should be offered him. Even when a Mussulman is alone, he must now and then have a pipe and some coffee. The want of being continually waited on has, no doubt, suggested to the Turks the idea of being attended by the deaf and dumb, when they have occasion to treat of any important affair. The sultan has, in his palace, forty deaf and dumb persons who wait on him in conjunction with his pages. Most of the great have some also; but there is, in this respect, a great deal of roguery of which men too credulous and too unguarded may be the dupe. I frequently saw at the house of Citizen DESCORCHES, during the first days of his arrival, a man who was reckoned deaf and dumb, with whom conversation was carried on in Turkish, in writing, and who communicated the intrigues of the court and the anecdotes of the town. He lent too attentive an ear to all the discourse which was held, for any person not to be soon persuaded that he knew more than one language, and that his ears served him tolerably well. When he thought himself unmasked, he ceased to act a part no longer useful.

It has often been repeated, improperly, that mutes were sometimes commissioned to go and strangle the victims that the sultan devoted to death :  
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it is generally the *capidgis-bachis*, of whom we shall speak presently, that discharge those functions, either in the capital, or in the provinces.

The Grand Signior likewise maintains a tolerably great number of dwarfs, as little calculated to serve as to amuse him. When these shrimps are at the same time deaf and dumb, their consequence increases, and they are treated with much greater respect.

The *capidgis* or porters, whose number is rather considerable, keep watch at the outer gates of the palace. They must not be confounded with the *capidgis-bachis*, a sort of chamberlains, whose place is honourable and lucrative, and who are charged to execute the orders which they receive from the sultan, those, for example, to cut off the head of a rebel or extortioner, to carry the news of the appointment to a government, to go and collect the successions of the great officers of the empire, &c. Their chief, always taken from this class, is called *mir-alem*. The *capidgis-bachis* are sometimes raised to the dignity of pacha with two tails, and go in that quality to govern the province which is allotted them.

## CHAPTER V.

*Of the caïques.—Of the captain-pacha.—Of the Turkish navy.—Of the galiond-gis.—Advantages of the harbour of Constantinople.*

A SIGHT really beautiful, and which one cannot sufficiently admire from the French palace, and from all the elevated places whence the eye looks down on the harbour and over the Sea of MARMORA, is the arrival and departure of the ships and large boats coming in and going out under full sail, and the continual movement of a great number of caïques generally manned by two or three rowers, incessantly crossing the harbour in every direction, and proceeding with celerity to all the villages of the BOSPHORUS, to SCUTARI, to PRINCES' Islands, and to every place in the environs. These caïques, thus named in the country, are long narrow boats, extremely light, equipped with one, two, or three pairs of oars, seldom with four. They carry one or two, and even three sails, which are set only in fine weather, or when the wind is not too strong. These boats are not provided with ballast, and are so buoyant, that a breeze rather stiff would overset them, if the boatman did not take care to let go the sheet on the smallest danger, and to throw the boat up in the wind by shifting the helm. The number of these caïques is so considerable, and they divide the water with such velocity, that sometimes all the skill of the rowers cannot prevent them from running foul of each other, and one of the two from being overset, especially when the weather is bad; for then the rowers do not form a sufficiently-correct judgment of the effect of the wind on a boat so light, and which presents a great deal of surface out of the water. In such cases, it is proper to know how to swim and to be able to gain the shore: assistance is seldom given to those to whom such

a misfortune happens, because there would be too much danger for him who would wish to save one of the unfortunate beings ; he would run the risk of being himself overfet in wishing to take the other man into his boat.

The construction of these caïques leaves nothing to be wished for in point of the elegance of their form and the swiftness of their sailing. Two hours are sufficient, with even a light breeze, to sail from CONSTANTINOPLE to PRINCES' Islands, distant from ten to twelve miles ; and notwithstanding the contrary wind and current, three rowers never take more time for reaching BUYUK-DÉRÉ, distant fifteen miles.

The caïques belonging to the sultan are remarkable for their size, their gilding, their elegance, and the number and dexterity of the rowers : they carry fourteen pairs of oars, and are manned by twenty-eight bostangees dressed in white : the bostangee-bachi, as we have before said, is the cockswain or steersman. The caïque of the grand visir has twelve pairs of oars ; that of the principal officers of the PORTE, and of the ambassadors of foreign powers have seven pairs. In these large caïques one man is necessarily required for each oar ; while those of private persons are sufficiently narrow for a single man to make use of two oars at a time.

The sultan seldom goes on the water in winter ; but, in the summer, he frequently repairs to the different palaces which he has on the channel of the BLACK SEA, or to the palace of the fresh waters, situated two leagues from the city, in the narrow valley watered by the little river which empties itself into the head of the harbour, and whose tranquil stream permits the caïques to ascend it to that distance. The cannon never fails to announce the departure and the arrival of the sultan : any one may easily procure himself the satisfaction of seeing his highness pass. His caïque is distinguished by a beautiful

crimson awning, spread towards the stern. Various *caïques* of the same size, in which are the principal officers, come next; he is preceded and followed by a great number of others.

Before we enter into any details on the subject of the Turkish navy, we think it our duty to say a word of the *capitan-pacha*, whose zeal and activity have never relaxed since he has commanded the naval forces of the Ottoman Empire, and has been at the head of all the maritime establishments. He enjoys with SELIM III. an influence which time seems to increase and strengthen. In that happy age when the heart is still in all its purity, and at the time when the cruel mistrust of the sovereign held as prisoner the heir of the empire, HUSSEIN, born in CIRCASSIA, was a slave to young SELIM; he soon became the flatterer of all his tastes, the confidant of his heart, and his intimate friend. The connexions of infancy are subject to experience changes and vicissitudes resulting from the caprices of that age; but reason almost always consolidates what a mutual inclination has begun: the friends of youth are reciprocally attached for the remainder of life.

A fortunate circumstance happened to strengthen the Grand Signior's attachment to the captain-pacha. The intrigues of the *seraglio*, it is said, threatened the life of SELIM, before he had arrived at the throne of his ancestors: a hint given him by a slave of the *seraglio*, sister to HUSSEIN, saved him from destruction. Since then his gratitude has been unbounded; SELIM, scarcely seated on the throne, married the daughter of ABDUL HAMID to HUSSEIN, and loaded him with favours: he made him superintendant of the navy, and High Admiral. The latter, brought up in the *seraglio*, without knowledge and without study, appointed to one of the first places of the empire, and master of all the maritime forces, was a moment embarrassed, when he saw about him no man sufficiently intelligent to enlighten him and guide his steps;

steps; but presently, in imitation of his predecessor, he sent for French builders and shipwrights to direct the works of the arsenal, and push on with activity the vessels which he resolved to construct.

HASSAN-pacha, his predecessor, a greater man than he, but full as ignorant, frequently counteracted in his projects, because he had not, like the latter, the entire confidence of his master, had caused to be built as many ships as the finances of the State and circumstances would allow. He had called in a French builder, named *LEROI*, and had permitted him to give to the Turkish ships the European form which they had not before. The present captain-pacha had only to follow the steps of HASSAN; but, being more fortunate, he found in the attachment of the sovereign all the pecuniary means fit for favouring his projects.

The last two wars with RUSSIA, the issue of which had been so unfortunate, had made the Grand Signior and the Divan sensible of the necessity of having a powerful navy, as well for defending the possessions of the BLACK SEA and of the ARCHIPELAGO, as for securing the capital from all insult on the part of the Russians. And, indeed, the captain-pacha has had the facility of transmitting into the department of the navy the major part of the revenues of the State, and by this means of causing a great number of ships to be built. We may, at this moment, carry the Turkish navy to twenty sail of the line, one of which is a three-decker; to upwards of twenty frigates or sloops, some of which are of forty guns; and to various other small vessels. On our departure, in the year VI. (1798) ship-building was pushed on with the greatest activity, at the head of the BLACK SEA, at SINOPE, in the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE, and at RHODES. And should nothing derange the projects of the captain-pacha, or divert the funds appropriated at this moment to the navy, it is not to be doubted that the

Porte will soon have a considerable number of ships like those of the European powers : but will it have a sufficiency of sailors to man them, and of officers skilful enough to direct their movements ?

Unfortunately the captain-pacha has not the great views of a statesman, and the knowledge which his place requires : he employs himself with the smallest details, with the minuteness of a man who has more good-will than talents. He is himself seen to direct the works of the arsenal, and there to spend the whole day, in order to stimulate the workmen by his presence ; but, too confined in his conceptions, he has thought to be able to form a navy by simply ordering the construction of a great number of ships : he has not encouraged trade, he has not even resolved on plans for the formation of seamen. There has, indeed, long existed a mathematical school in the arsenal : under Torr, another school was formed for navigation : but they have not received the encouragement which they would require, and the knowledge of the professors is too limited for these schools to be at this moment of great utility.

The Turks, in general, are not fond of the sea ; they cannot conform to the active life which a seaman is obliged to lead ; they cannot accustom themselves to the privations which that profession requires ; they commonly prefer making use of the Greeks, who display, in this line as in every other, an intelligence and an activity of which the Turks are not capable. The Greeks manœuvre tolerably well, and conduct their little vessels with much skill in the seas with which they are acquainted ; but they have not the smallest theory of navigation : almost all of them navigate without a compass, steer only by the knowledge of the mountains and coasts, bear up for every wind that blows somewhat strong, and go and wait for fine weather in the nearest port.

The sailors and soldiers of the navy were formerly called *levens* or *levantis* : they are at this day distinguished by the name of *galiondgis* : the former are Turks of the maritime villages, or Greeks of the ARCHIPELAGO ; they are permanent, constantly receive their pay, and are to embark at the first order. The galiondgis-soldiers are all Mussulmans, and receive pay only when employed : after the ship is put out of commission they obtain leave to retire into their own country, and to resume their usual occupations. The Greeks are employed in a ship of war only for working her ; her defence being reserved for the Mussulmans. Prudence permits not the latter, in those circumstances, to give arms to men whom they oppress ; they know, besides, that the Greeks would be little disposed to fight, and get themselves killed for them.

When the exigencies of the State require it, recourse is had to the merchant-service, and, if it be necessary, a firman of the Grand Signior appears, by which it is enjoined to the primates of every island of the ARCHIPELAGO, to the governor of every maritime town of any consequence to send to CONSTANTINOPLE a certain number of sailors. This is what we saw happen in the spring of the year VI. (1798), when the question was to man three ships of the line, two caravels, three frigates, three corvettes, and fifteen gun-boats. These last were intended for ascending the DANUBE, and seconding the attack which the captain-pacha meditated by land against WIDIN, where PASWAN OGLU was shut up. The caravels were to repair to ALEXANDRIA according to custom ; the ships, the frigates, and the corvettes were to go into the ARCHIPELAGO for the purpose of levying on the Greeks the annual impost to which they are subject.

The galiondgis-soldiers are very undisciplined, very mutinous, and generally very licentious. Before their departure, they almost always give themselves up to excesses which the government tolerates or dares not punish for fear  
of

of displeasing them all. The Jews, the Armenians, the Greeks, and even the Europeans are very circumspect at this period: they avoid passing, even in broad day, into the quarters at all remote of PERA and GALATA, and they take care to return to their own habitations before dark. Notwithstanding these precautions, a great number of persons were stopped and robbed in GALATA in the year VI. (1798), and some even were killed. True it is that to this scourge was added that of the arrival of the troops who were assembling at CONSTANTINOPLE and ADRIANOPLE, in order to march against PASWAN OGLU.

At PERA, there are several houses where European sailors, Greeks, and even Turks go to drink and intoxicate themselves, notwithstanding the severity of the government in this respect. Quarrels frequently happen among the sea-faring people, which sometimes terminate in the death of some of them. A little time after our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we were witnesses of the assassination of a Greek, of the audacity of the galiondgi who killed him, and of the impunity which was the result.

A few Greeks, seated round a table, were drinking with each other, when a galiondgi whom they did not know, and who had just been drinking alone, called on them to pay for him: the latter refused; he insisted, and accompanied his demand by the epithets of *dogs*, *bogs*, and *infidels*, so familiar in the mouth of the Turks when they are speaking to subjects not Mussulmans. The answer was a second time negative, but not abusive; the galiondgi immediately drew his yatagan\*, and threatened to kill these Greeks if they did not pay; on the third refusal on their part, one of them received the mortal wound. The galiondgi, without fear as without remorse, put on a resolute air, kept the others and all the by-

\* A sabre a little crooked inwards, pointed and very sharp, which the Turks wear at their girdle, and of which they make use in battle.

standers in awe, by holding a pistol in one hand, and his yatagan in the other. He quietly walked off, when the guard, armed only with sticks, ran to seize hold of him. The galiondgi faced about, threatened to fire at the first who should advance, made a running fight of it, wounded some of them, and reached the burying-grounds, which lie on a declivity to the west of PERA. Under cover of the cypress-trees, he arrived at the shipping, where he met with comrades who received him and favoured his escape.

. A ship of war was, not long since, fitted up in such a manner that each Turk had his birth and every thing that was necessary for his cooking and other arrangements. The between-decks were so encumbered, that frequently it was very difficult to make use of the great guns, and the Mussulmans had constantly received several broadsides from the enemy, before they were in a condition to return them. The guns themselves were of a different calibre, and they were served without order or preparation: the shot which were brought for loading the cannon, were frequently either too large or too small; which did not allow of defending a ship of the greatest force against a single frigate: but, within these few years, the Turks have introduced more order into their ships; the duty is carried on with much more intelligence, the between-decks are no longer so encumbered, and the artillery is better served than it was before.

The captain-pacha, as we have already said, is the High Admiral and the superintendant-general of the navy; he usually commands in person the fleets and all the naval forces of the empire; he nominates to all places, and employments; he orders the building and repairing of ships; but the *terfuna-emini* is properly the naval minister, since he has the administration of the funds appropriated to the navy, the direction of the supply of stores to the arsenal, the care of the equipment of the ships, and the superintendence of all the works; he has under him chiefs, deputies, and different harbour-

masters, as well for the execution of his orders and for private superintendence, as for the police.

The length of the harbour, from the point of the seraglio to the village of **AJUB**, is upwards of three thousand toises; its smallest width is about three hundred: it is reckoned upwards of five hundred in front of **TOPHANA**, and in front of the arsenal. The ships of war are ranged very near to each other along the arsenal. Merchant-vessels commonly anchor along **GALATA**. Some of them come under **SALYBASARI** and **FONDOCLI**, waiting for the moment to get under sail, because they are afraid, in going out, that the stream may carry them on the point of the seraglio; but this precaution is generally useless: ships may effect their departure equally well from the place where they come to an anchor and from every part of the harbour, provided care be taken, if the wind hang to the northward, to keep on the side of **TOPHANA**, for were the wind to die away all at once, and a vessel had got too near the point of the seraglio, she would run a risk of being driven against the rocks by which it is skirted, and of being dashed to pieces. Ships of the line sometimes, before they sail, bring up in the middle of the harbour, but most frequently they anchor in the **BOSPHORUS**, from **FONDOCLI** as far as **BECHIK-TACHIE**.

A ship may, with the greatest facility, leave the harbour with every wind that commonly reigns in these countries. There is none but an easterly wind that is contrary; though, independently of that wind blowing very seldom at **CONSTANTINOPLE**, it is there but momentary: scarcely is it felt, before it shifts to the northward or southward.

However, if it is easy to leave the harbour, a ship cannot stand for the **ARCHIPELAGO** but with a wind from the northern quarter, nor for the **BLACK SEA**, but with a southerly wind; The position of the seas and the direction of the

the coasts form and modify the winds in such a manner that they blow almost always from those two quarters: a breeze from the south is much less frequent than the other, and scarcely ever blows during the three summer months of the year; on which account, it seldom happens that, in this season, a vessel is able to ascend the HELLESPONT.

Although this harbour has no road properly so called, it nevertheless enjoys, more than any other, that advantage, since a whole fleet, however numerous, may anchor in safety in the BOSPHORUS, and there wait for the moment of departure: it might also anchor between the coast of ASIA and PRINCES' Islands, and even all along the city as far as ST. STEPHANO, if the wind were to the northward.

The position of this harbour is such, that there is nothing to fear from the enterprises of an enemy's fleet; for it would be easy to prohibit the entrance of the BOSPHORUS and of the HELLESPONT, by fortifying those two important passages. The PROPONTIS might serve for naval evolutions, and become a practical school of navigation. This harbour has, besides, the great advantage of being capable of containing a very considerable navy, as well on account of its extent, and of the facility which it affords of procuring every thing that is necessary for the building, the repairing, and the equipment of a great number of ships, as because there might be had, in a little time, all the sailors that would be wanted, from the quantity of harbours and maritime towns which lie near at hand, from the extent of the coasts, and from the population of which these fertile and diversified countries are susceptible.

In short, one of the inappreciable advantages of the harbour of CONSTANTINOPLE, is that it cannot be choked up, because a part of the waters which come from the BLACK SEA, and which are driven back by the

advanced point of the seraglio, make the tour of the harbour, and sweep away all the ordure and filth which the Turks never cease to throw into it.

At the time of our departure, some Swedish engineers were constructing a basin in the arsenal, to serve for the repairing and even for the building of a ship of the greatest force. The rock in which they were digging, was soft, schistose, and nevertheless so little susceptible of infiltration, that the most simple pump was sufficient for the removal of the water. From this, hopes may be entertained of increasing the number of these basins at no considerable expense; which would be of the greatest utility to the navy of this country.

CHAPTER VI.

*Excursion to the environs of Pera.—Tombs of the Armenians.—Trip to Scutari.—Description of the burying-grounds.—Mountain of Bourgourlou.—Ceremonies of the howling dervises.*

TILL the arrival of the envoy extraordinary of the Republic, our pecuniary means allowed us not to undertake distant excursions: we were under the necessity of confining ourselves to seeing the city and the adjacent country, and to visiting, in ASIA, the environs of SCUTARI, and the land of the ancient CHALCEDON. Our first steps were directed to the burying-ground of PERA, a place for walking and recreation to some, a place for melancholy and meditation to others. You arrive there by the long street of PERA, and you find yourself on an elevated lawn, partly covered with grass, occupied by the burying ground of the Armenians and by that of the Europeans: on one side is seen a cultivated field, and a little farther on, a thick forest of cypresses, a vast cemetery of the Mussulmans. A company of bostangees are there in a sort of pavilion, to give, to those who call for them, pipes and coffee. This place, melancholy, from the surrounding objects, is nevertheless infinitely agreeable from the various prospects which present themselves, from the landscapes afforded by the coast of ASIA and the shores of the BOSPHORUS, from the view of the PROPONTIS and of a great part of CONSTANTINOPLE.

The graves of the Europeans are scattered over a space somewhat considerable: the greater part of them are remarkable from a large sepulchral stone, on which is engraved an inscription more or less emphatical. For this purpose is employed a granite marble, whitish, and frequently veined with gray,  
 . . . . . which

which is drawn from the Island of MARMORA. The graves of the Turks, of which we shall presently speak, are concealed from view by a very thick forest of cypresses. Those of the Armenians serve as a seat, and are shaded by different trees of an agreeable and diversified aspect : among others are to be remarked the mulberry-tree, the plane-tree, the ash, the elm, and the walnut-tree.

The graves of the Armenians are very close to each other, and are covered by a marble sculptured in relief in its upper part, representing a vase of flowers, the instrument which designates the rank and profession of the deceased, and an inscription in Armenian characters. A person must have died very poor if he have on his grave only a simple stone, without any ornament. Frequently is perceived, by the side of the inscription, the figure of a man whose head is cut off; this is a method of perpetuating the remembrance of an injustice, of an act of tyranny on the part of the Turks, and of transmitting it to the most remote posterity. I have often seen in the forenoon, Armenian women weeping and mourning over the grave of a husband, over that of a father, a mother, or a child : the whole family sometimes come thither : not unfrequently too priests come, with the parents of the deceased, to recite, over his grave, prayers for the repose and salvation of his soul. The Armenians, like the Turks, consider it as a duty to wash the body of their dead before they bury them, and almost all of them take care to plant, near the grave, a tree that may shade it one day, and moderate the ardent rays of the sun.

From this beautiful site you descend rapidly, by different roads, into a narrow, fertile valley, where some Turks cultivate, with no great intelligence, the black mulberry-tree, a few fruit-trees, and several kitchen-garden plants, such as the garden-bean, lettuce, chicory, *solanum mclongena*, *hibiscus esculentus*, and various species of pumpkins. You leave at some distance, to the right, the  
Turkish

Turkish cemeteries of which we have spoken; to the left, an uneven ground, often uncultivated: at the extremity of this valley you find, at a little distance from the sea, a walk planted with old cypresses and a few elms, too far distant from the city to be frequented. Beyond this, are seen two palaces belonging to the sultan, one of which situated on a height, is in a rather bad condition: the other, placed on the shore of the channel of the BLACK SEA, is kept up and taken care of: the latter has gardens tolerably extensive, various edifices, and several kiosks or little pavilions ornamented and beautified externally. SELIM III. goes thither, it is said, every year to spend a few days at the beginning of the summer; he takes with him his harem, some pages, and most of his officers.

We had already been several times on the coast of ASIA, and had thence brought back some plants and land-shells infinitely interesting: we had visited the extensive burying-grounds of SCUTARI and examined the soil of CHALCEDON, when we resolved, on the 15th of Prairial (3d of June) to go and assist at the religious ceremonies of the howling dervises, and to ascend the mountain of BOURGOURLOU, in order to enjoy fully the view of CONSTANTINOPLÉ. From the valley which I have just mentioned, we repaired to the sea-port of *DALMA-BATCHE* with some of our friends: we had taken with us two janizaries belonging to the French palace, in order that they might serve us as an escort and guides. This precaution is not absolutely necessary in the environs of the capital, for it very seldom happens that, in ordinary times, several Europeans assembled are there insulted by Turks; but it is proper and sometimes even useful, because a stranger is more respected, and more considered; besides, he obtains what he wants with greater facility, and always at a more moderate price than when he is alone.

We embarked in caïques with three pairs of oars. The sea was smooth, the weather very fine; ten minutes were sufficient to transport us across the channel,

channel, and land us at SCUTARI. This town, which may be considered as a suburb of CONSTANTINOPLE, is situated on the opposite bank of the channel, on a sloping ground: it presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre, and affords a view very picturesque from the mixture of trees, houses, mosques, and minarets. Its population is estimated at near sixty thousand souls. The greater number of the inhabitants of SCUTARI are Mussulmans: there are, however, many Greeks, a few Armenians, and a few Jews. This town serves as an emporium and a rendezvous to the caravans of ASIA: it carries on some trade inland, and likewise with CONSTANTINOPLE. Some manufactories of Rube, both of silk, and of cotton, are there to be seen. The ground which surrounds it is tolerably well cultivated, and furnishes grain, vegetables, herbage, fruit, and particularly grapes which are kept during the whole winter and part of the spring.

At SCUTARI, there is one of the great mollas of the empire for the administration of justice. His jurisdiction embraces the part of the channel of the BLACK SEA on the side of ASIA, and extends several leagues inland. He has, under him, a naib or lieutenant, and several registers. For the police, there is a guard-house of bostangees commanded by a captain dependent on the bostangee-bachi, and a guard-house of janizaries commanded by an officer dependent on the janizary-aga of CONSTANTINOPLE.

The burying-grounds of SCUTARI are the handsomest of the Ottoman Empire, from their extent, the luxury of the tombs, and the height and closeness of the trees. The rich Turks of CONSTANTINOPLE, from a sentiment of pride or piety, prefer being buried in ASIA, which they consider as a holy land, as a land belonging to the true believers; while the land of EUROPE, according to them, is to fall one day into the hands of the christian powers, and be trodden on by the infidels. These burying-grounds are situated above

the town, and extend to the east and to the south, towards the sea, and to the environs of the spot formerly occupied by CHALCEDON.

Before we strayed into this forest of cypresses, we visited several store-houses of tomb-stones ready to be erected: we there found an assortment relating to the different professions and employments of the Turks, and calculated at the same time to satisfy the taste of every one: several workmen are employed in cutting the marble, in giving it various forms, in tracing on one of its faces, flowers, eulogiums, and sentences taken from the Koran.

When you have penetrated into the forest, the image of the tombs, the sight of a young widow shedding tears over the grave of her husband, of a mother regretting the loss of the dearest of her children, of an old man who has seen the last branch of his family become extinct; the silence which reigns in these places consecrated to death; the dark and uniform green of the cypress; the absence of the sun, whose rays cannot penetrate the thick foliage of the trees; the plaintive song of the turtles—every thing inclines man to meditation, and plunges him into a sweet melancholy. A similar place in EUROPE would be frequented by unhappy lovers, by unfortunate men, by those to whom sadness is a want, and tears are a relief.

The graves are very close to each other, and very diversified in their form. The poor Turks content themselves with erecting, at the two extremities of the grave, a simple sepulchral stone, without ornament and without inscription. Most frequently there are two slabs of marble sculptured and ornamented, one of which surmounted by a turban similar to that which the man wore in his life-time, presents an inscription indicating the age and profession of the deceased, and at the same time containing a panegyric or a sentence taken from the Koran: the other piece of marble is ornamented with a cypress-tree in relief, or a vase of flowers; it also bears sometimes a second inscription.

The letters are always in relief, and painted in black or gilt. The graves of the women are distinguishable, from one of these slabs of marble, in lieu of presenting a turban, being commonly terminated in the form of a mushroom. Those of the rich have the circumference of the grave in masonry : some, similar to an antique sarcophagus, are raised about three feet, and composed of four pieces of marble, two flat ones of which form the sides of the tomb ; those of the two extremities are surmounted by two pillars seven or eight feet high, on one of which is seen a long inscription. The upper part of the sarcophagus is without a lid, and leaves exposed to view the earth which covers the body. Sometimes a space containing one or several graves surrounded by a wall or palisade. A cypress-tree is commonly planted at one of the extremities of every grave ; which is the reason that, in these Turkish burying-grounds, those trees are so numerous and so close that they form a thick forest.

For the first years after the interment, the relations of the deceased come from time to time, or at fixed periods, to shed tears over the grave, to renew their regret, and spend the whole day in affliction. Some, more alive to their loss, make it their duty to cultivate flowers there, to take care of the cypress-tree which they have planted, and thence to address prayers to the Supreme Being.

We quitted these gloomy places in order to see images more cheerful. Half a league to the eastward of SCUTARI is the hill of BOURGOURLOU, whence the view extends afar, and spreads over the greatest part of CONSTANTINOPLE. The road thither is tolerably good : we went into a little village from which we had seen a great number of persons come, leading horses loaded with pitchers. We learnt that Sultan SELIM and almost all the great men of the capital drank no other water than that of the spring of this village, because it was considered as the most wholesome and the lightest of all the waters

which reach CONSTANTINOPLE, or are to be found in the environs. We tasted it, and we saw that, in fact, it deserved, to a certain degree, the reputation which it enjoyed. The hill whence it issues is schistose, and has nothing remarkable but a light turf, and a clump of trees that shades it, under which Turkish women assemble to drink coffee, smoke a pipe, and make a frugal repast.

We for some enjoyed the enchanting sight which presented itself to us: we could sufficiently contemplate the majesty of these places; our eyes could not tire of alternately surveying the city and the harbour, the winding channel of the BLACK SEA, and the numerous villages situated on its shores, the *Sicilia* of the MORA covered with islands, and the ever-verdant fields of EUROPE and ASIA. But the scene was to change: it was time to go and assist at the religious ceremonies of the dervises, known under the name of *howlers*; to see to what a pitch religious roguery sports with fools and block-heads, and by what means it succeeds in making dupes. One would have some difficulty in believing that men are capable of so much folly, and friars of impostures so gross, if the most enlightened states of EUROPE had not themselves afforded us scenes as ridiculous, and full as disgusting.

In a square hall by no means spacious, badly lighted, and in very indifferent condition, there was, for the men, a gallery raised three or four feet, and above, a tribune for the women, faced with close lattice-work. On one of the sides was a space lower by a foot than the floor of the hall, where we were as in the pit of a theatre. The middle of the hall was occupied by about thirty friars of different ranks and professions, to judge of them from their turban. Some of them were dressed as janizaries, others as *tchocadars*, some as *hoshangees*; several had the lengthened, and almost cylindrical felt-cap of dervises. The superiors of the order had their turban nearly similar to that

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jetties are still to be distinguished, which must have been sufficient for its trade and for its wants.

Pleased with our day's excursion, we entered the caïque before sun-set, in order to repair to the city. All this coast, elevated some toises above the level of the waters, was then covered with several plants and various species of broom in flower, which produced the most beautiful effect, and singularly ornamented the picture presented to us by the cypresses of SCUTARI, and the nearest hills of ASIA. Here the sea is never sufficiently agitated to encroach on the coast for any great extent, and form a beach at all considerable. When the foil allows, vegetables grow and fructify at a little distance from the shore, without being incommoded by the waters.

CHAPTER VII.

*Description of the environs of Constantinople.—Excursion of the sultan.—Establishments of Levens-schiffit.—Powder-manufactory of St. Stephano.—Custom of the Orientals.*

CITIZEN DESCORCHES arrived at CONSTANTINOPLE on the 19th of Prairial year I (7th of June 1793); from what he told us he was ignorant of our mission: he had not, before his departure, received any instructions which related to us, and found not at the legation any letter or notice concerning our travels. We were a little surpris'd to see ourselves, as it were, abandoned, when FRANCE, strongly agitated internally, and externally attacked with vigour by a considerable number of enemies, could not permit the provisional government to cast their looks on us. Besides, the ministers who had sent us to the LEVANT were no longer in place, or were already no longer in existence.

Our mission, subordinate to events, had for a long time past changed its object: our political and commercial relations with the Ottoman PORTE were almost interrupted since the retreat of the provisional ruler, since, above all, the looks of the Government of FRANCE appeared to be fixed more particularly on the points threatened, and since the greater part of the rulers, guided by a blind and disastrous delirium, were unfortunately hurrying the nation into measures subversive of all industry and of all commerce. The fate of the French settled in the LEVANT depended on that of the mother-country: a few reverses more in EUROPE would have been sufficient for them all to see themselves in a moment involved in one general proscription: to

such a degree did the **PORTE** then appear weak, and the enemies of **FRANCE** exacting.

Doubtful whether our travels would present the same degree of utility to those who were, since our departure, invested with authority, and whether they would grant us the assistance which their predecessors had promised us, and with which we could no longer dispense, we resolved to return to our own country, or wait at **CONSTANTINOPLE**, according to the opinion of Citizen **DESCORCHES**, till the minister for foreign affairs had explained himself respecting us. And in order to derive, at all events, the greatest advantage from our travels, we hastened to gather all the knowledge which a stay of a few months might allow us; we attentively visited the city and the environs, and directed our steps towards every place where we could make any interesting discovery.

Although the soil of the environs of **CONSTANTINOPLE** is every where very fit for the vine, for various species of corn, for the mulberry-tree, and for the different fruit-trees of our climates, scarcely any culture is there seen, except on the borders of the channel. The land is tolerably level in the west part of the city; it forms a few rising grounds and some vast plains, on which an industrious and agricultural people would easily find an abundant and varied food: it is uneven and intersected by hills and vales in the northern part, that is to say, from the harbour to the **BLACK SEA**. Almost all this place is schistose; the vegetable stratum is more or less thick and of a tolerably good quality, especially in the vallies and in the places where the soil is of any depth; but whether the mischievous genius of despotism dries up every where the sources of public prosperity, or whether the Turks are not fond of giving themselves up to the culture of the land, and that, in imitation of their forefathers, they prefer the dangerous profession of arms, robbery, or traffic, it is certain that, in all the Ottoman Empire, part of the best lands are neglected,

neglected, and that it is the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Arabs who apply themselves more particularly to agriculture, when they are not too much oppressed by the agents of the government, or tormented by pillaging and devastating hordes that the pachas tolerate or cannot repress.

Within these few years, some Greeks of EPIRUS and of DALMATIA have sown with success a few waste lands in the environs of the capital, and have there made sufficiently plentiful harvests; their example will be imitated, no doubt, if the government do not throw any obstacles in the way, if it can be convinced that a land covered with rich crops, productive trees, and useful plants is the most beautiful ornament of the environs of a city and the most flattering panegyric of the sovereign.

On going out by the elevated suburb of PERA, you find an uneven, schistose soil, little cultivated: to the left you see a narrow, deep valley, extremely fertile, in which are reared different kitchen-garden plants. Beyond this valley you perceive also, on an elevated ground, the village of ST. DIMITRI, which may be considered as one of the suburbs of the capital. The environs of this Greek village present a few vineyards and gardens. After having passed a second valley, you soon arrive on a level spot, uncultivated, and tolerably spacious, called OK-MEÏDAN, to which the sultan repairs sometimes in summer, accompanied by the principal officers of his household and a part of his pages. He there spends the day in a beautiful kiosk or under magnificent tents, and sometimes amuses himself in letting off two or three arrows.

Skilful flatterers, ever active about the man in power, have not failed to find that every arrow shot from the hand of the sovereign reached to a prodigious distance, and, in order to eternize the remembrance of it, have been

eager to erect, every time that the fultan has taken this diversion, a marble pillar on which is engraved in relief a long inscription.

The pages who exercise themselves after him, would take good care not to display all their strength and all their skill, if they were not certain that the mark which has just been hit, in appearance, by the fultan, has been placed out of the reach of their arrows.

These pages then perform a mock-fight on horseback with the lance, very much used among all the Orientals; it consists in throwing on a gallop, with the arm raised, that weapon with the greatest force, and hitting with its point one's adversary at a somewhat great distance. And whether he have missed his aim or struck his enemy, the Turkish, Arabic or Persian warrior, in order not to remain unarmed or be struck in his turn, must again recover his weapon going on at the same time, without setting his foot to the ground. In the mock-fight, they make use of a stick called *djerid*, taken from light wood, such as the willow or the date-tree; for, without this precaution, serious accidents would frequently happen: a person might be dangerously wounded if the *djerid* were of a hard and heavy wood.

In every part of the Ottoman Empire, we were several times witnesses of the dexterity which the Orientals display in this combat, and of the nimbleness with which, while on a gallop, they recover their *djerid*, often at the first attempt. This fight, much more frequent among the Arabs than among the Turks and the Persians, can take place only between an inconsiderable number of combatants, and among nations which make much more use of the lance than of fire-arms.

In following the road of BELGRADE and of BUYUK-DÉRÉ, you see some uncultivated lands, a few scattered vineyards, and some fields laid down in corn.

corn. After a journey, on foot, of an hour and a half, you arrive at a fort of farm, called *LEVENS-SCHIFLIT*, adorned with some gardens tolerably picturesque, and some rather extensive buildings kept in very good order. HASSAN, captain-pacha, to whom Sultan ABDUL HAMID had given it as an appanage, had made of it a place of recreation, and had there placed a guard of *levens* or marines, in order to repress pillage, and prevent the robberies which were then committed on this road, and even under the walls of the city.

What is at this day seen most interesting at *LEVENS-SCHIFLIT*, is a manufactory of muskets and bayonets in the European style, established at the commencement of SELIM's reign, by a Spanish engineer: it was neglected and almost abandoned a little time after its establishment; but it has resumed its activity since SELIM, the captain-pacha, and some members of the council, finding the superiority of our weapons and the advantage of our tactics, resolved to introduce them by degrees into the Ottoman armies.

A part of these buildings is occupied, at this moment, by a corps of infantry of twelve hundred boxtangees paid and exercised in the European manner, by another corps of about four thousand gunners, bombardiers, and matrosses, and by a company of horse-artillery; but it appears that there had also been an intention of lodging there cavalry, to judge from the extent of the stables and buildings which were erected at the time that the Grand Signior and the greater part of the members of the Divan were likewise taken up with the creation of a standing army, organized in imitation of that of the European powers.

Notwithstanding the mutiny, the threats, and the revolt of the janizaries; notwithstanding the resistance of the other corps of troops and the opposition of the whole nation, which repels with obstinacy the customs that have  
been

been transmitted to it by other nations, it is not to be doubted that SELIM would have succeeded in his projects, and have surmounted all the obstacles which the interest of some, and the ignorance and fanaticism of all opposed to him, if a man no less extraordinary than enterprising, if PASWAN OGLOU had not found, in his genius and in the pecuniary assistance of those whom the success of his projects might counteract, the means of paralyzing the great measures of the PORTE, the only ones capable perhaps of strengthening the authority of the sovereign, of preventing the revolts of the pachas, of relieving the people, and of protracting the fall of this vast empire.

I shall, on another occasion, make known that man who is moved by hidden springs, and whom policy makes use of whenever it has need of him.

After having passed LEVENS-SCHIFLIT, you proceed, by various roads, to BELGRADE, to TARAPIA, and to BUYUK-DÉRÉ, villages which the European ambassadors have successively inhabited in the summer. To the westward and northward of the first, are some ancient forests, the abode of wild boars, stags, roe-bucks, jackals, and of several birds of prey. The *Smilax excelsa* \* climbs up to the top of the most of these trees, and envelops them with its branches and foliage.

If you then direct your steps to the opposite side, to the west part of the city, for example, where the level grounds and the extremely fertile lands seem to invite man to conceal himself from the intrigues, the noise, and the tumult of cities, in order to seek in the fields, under a cool shade, in the middle of an orchard, plenty, peace, and happiness, you will be surprised, no doubt, to find these lands so little cultivated, equally neglected as the others, and to see them seldom covered with rich harvests. We were struck, the first time that we directed our steps towards these places, at the terrible effect which def-

\* Lofty-climbing oriental bindweed.—T.

potifin produces on agriculture in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE. The filence which reigns every where, the nakedness of the fields, the culture of the lands extremely neglected, and the total abandonment of some, bespeak rather a devastated country, or the steril borders of a province distant from the roads, the ports and towns of consumption, than the approaches of the capital of a great empire.

On a vast extent of ground which you traverse in the environs of the roads of ADRIANOPLE and of RODOSTO, or on the road of ST. STEPHANO, you meet with only three or four farms, the appanage of some eminent place or possessed for ever by some imperial mosque.

In following the road the nearest to the sea-shore, you arrive, after two hours' walk, at St. STEPHANO, a Greek village, where the Grand Signior has, within these few years, established a manufactory of gun-powder, the direction of which he has intrusted to an Italian. The ignorance of the Turks, in regard to the manufacture of powder, has always been such, that they for a long time purchased that commodity of the Venetians, and have not yet succeeded in giving it that degree of perfection which it obtains among us. The powder manufactured in TURKEY is scarcely fit for shooting, and especially for the priming of a musket or a pistol. The ship-captains who frequent the LEVANT, almost all make it an article of merchandise extremely advantageous, because the Turks seek, for their pistols and carbines, the fine powder of EUROPE, and because the Europeans who amuse themselves in shooting, cannot dispense with it.

The environs of ST. STEPHANO are excellent for quail-shooting, from the end of Fructidor to the end of Vendemiaire. Ducks and teals are also to be found during the winter, on the banks of the lake known under the Italian name

name of *PONTE PICCOLO*\*, which lies beyond the village. This lake is extremely full of fish; I have several times seen monstrous carp that had been caught there; they weighed from fifty to eighty pounds, and were three or four feet long.

It was on the 22d of Prairial (10th of June) that we went, on foot, to ST. STEPHANO, walking across fields covered with thistles, grasses, and plants of every species which delayed our progress, and fatigued us greatly. We hoped to return the same day by sea, in order to examine the shore; but as it was already late when we left the manufactory, it was impossible for us to find a boat, so that, tired as we were, we were obliged to determine on making a frugal repast at the house of a Greek papas, and pass the night on a sofa, exposed to fleas and bugs, extremely numerous throughout the LEVANT.

The Orientals, more simple than ourselves in their household furniture, are not acquainted with the luxury of beds. They have in their houses a certain number of very light mattresses, of wool or cotton, which they spread on the floor or on the sofas at bed-time, and on which they pass the night. The women take off their trinkets, and lay aside their finery; the men strip themselves of their habit of ceremony, change their turban, and lie down in their clothes, as well as the women. They cover themselves with quilted coverlids, to which the rich add a cotton sheet, which they commonly do not change till it is very dirty, or almost worn out.

The next morning these mattresses and coverlids are taken away; they are shut up in closets, and the bed-chamber again becomes the drawing-room and

\* Or the little bridge; and in Turkish, *Koutchouk-ichefne*. The lake has taken the name of the bridge established on the narrow part which communicates with the sea. A few leagues from this spot, is another lake, called, for the same reason, *Ponte grande* or *Buyuk-ichefne*.

eating-parlour. Among the poor Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, the whole family almost always sleep in the same room; but, among the Mussulmans, the apartment of the men is always separate from that of the women.

As the use of chairs and tables is equally unknown to the Orientals, *sophas* are the principal and almost the only articles of furniture of their apartments: these are generally put on three sides of the room, on that of the windows and on two of the other sides: they are immediately placed on the floor, or raised a few inches, half a foot and even a foot, by means of a little eminence formed of some planks. They are covered with beautiful printed calicoes, stuffs of silk, velvet, or cloth, and ornamented with cotton, silk, silver, or gold fringe. There are large cushions for the back, throughout the length of the *sopha*, trimmed with fringe and covered with the same stuffs; carpets and mats are placed in the middle of the room. There remains a part of the floor, opposite to the entrance-door, which is lower by five or six inches, and which serves as a passage for going to the lateral chambers.

The *sopha* serves as a seat during the day, and as a bed during the night: there it is that the Orientals pass the day, squatted, with their legs crossed, and that, at night, they place their mattresses for sleeping. Frequently, in order not to wear the *sopha* too much, they remain on the carpet or on the mat, and, at night, for want of other mattresses, they sleep on the *sopha*, after having taken off the cover by which it is ornamented.

It may be conceived that this manner of living on the floor, on carpets or mats which cannot be swept, and which are neglected to be beaten or shaken, in wooden houses, in a hot climate, among a people who are scarcely acquainted with the use of linen, who keep on their garments during the night, and do not take them off in general till they are worn out, fleas, bugs, and all

the vermin which adhere to the dirty and negligent man, must be extremely numerous; this too was what made us suffer most in the course of our travels, because it was impossible for us to secure ourselves against those insects when we were obliged to lie down in a place which was infested by them.

It was not enough for the fleas and bugs to prevent us from sleeping; we were, besides, lighted by a lamp which was burning before the image of the virgin, as is the practice night and day in all the Greek houses of the *LEVANT*. We durst not extinguish it: we should have afflicted too much the worthy priest at whose house we had stopped, and who had received us with the greatest politeness.

We had observed, in going to *ST. STEPHANO*, the double ditch and the double wall which secure *CONSTANTINOPLE* by land, and which have been so well preserved, notwithstanding the various attacks which that city has experienced: we wished, on our return, to take a look at the wall which formerly defended it by sea, from one extremity to the other, and which extended all along the harbour as far as the environs of *AIYUP*. We embarked the next morning in a caïque, and, in an hour and a half, we were before the little circular fort, known by the name of the *SEVEN TOWERS*, situated at the southern extremity of the city. It is nothing more at the present day but a State prison, in which the ambassadors and agents of foreign powers are shut up when the Turks are at war with them.

The walls which are afterwards seen, are partly destroyed. Here are to be remarked various inscriptions which indicate the period of the works which the Greek emperors erected. Here are likewise to be seen pieces of pillars which the Turks employed when they repaired the breaches occasioned by the siege that they carried on before they made themselves masters of the city.

We

We soon arrived at the gate of *DAOUD-PACHA*, near which is the ancient harbour of *THEODOSIUS* or of *ELEUTHER*. We stopped further on at *CATIRGA-LIMANI*, or the galley-harbour, constructed by *JULIAN*, repaired by *MAHOMET II*, at this day choked up, and, in a great measure, transformed, as well as the other, into kitchen-gardens.

These two harbours, useless to the navy, would, nevertheless, be deepened and kept up by a nation more enlightened than that of the Turks, because they would facilitate the conveyance of provisions and merchandize into every quarter of this great city, whose uneven and hilly ground scarcely permits the use of carts.

We rowed upwards of an hour along the walls of the city before we arrived off the seraglio. Here, cypresses, pines, and plane-trees rise above the outer wall; farther on, various irregular buildings, several domes and minarets of mosques are to be remarked in this vast enclosure which was occupied by the ancient *BYZANTIUM*; by the sea-side are seen a few kiosks, whither the sultan repairs sometimes to enjoy a view of the *PROPONTIS*, and breathe the cool air which comes every day, in summer, from the *BLACK SEA*.

Having arrived at the point of the seraglio, we passed the harbour, leaving it on the left, and *SCUTARI* on the right; then we disembarked at the landing-place of *TOP-HANA*, situated to the east of *GALATA*.

## CHAPTER VIII.

*Description of the Bosphorus and of its environs.—Arrival at Buyuk-déré.—Of the plane-tree which is there met with.—Indications of a volcano at the mouth of the Black Sea.*

ON the 25th of Prairial (13th of June) we resolved to go and take up our residence at BUYUK-DÉRÉ, a village situated in EUROPE, near five leagues from CONSTANTINOPLE, towards the mouth of the channel, in order to be better enabled to visit to a somewhat considerable distance from the city, the fields of EUROPE and of ASIA, to repair with greater facility to the shores of the BLACK SEA, and to avail ourselves of the season favourable for observations, researches, and the collecting of most of the articles of natural history. The spring-plants had already done flowering, and no longer afforded any thing but seeds; those of summer were going to flower, and gave us hopes of an abundant harvest. On our return from EGYPT in Thermidor and Fructidor year III. we had collected a few late plants and a great many seeds; and, on returning from PERSIA in the year VI. (1798) we had not quitted CONSTANTINOPLE without gathering the spring-plants.

We went to embark at TOP-HANA on board a caïque with three pairs of oars: it was necessary to pass through a multitude of snarling dogs which fatigue Europeans by their barking, and of which a person ought to be on his guard, because they sometimes revenge themselves unawares for the blows which they, from time to time, receive from the sailors. The square which leads to the steps where you embark, is large, irregular, planted with some beautiful plane-trees, and adorned with a fountain constructed within these few years by a captain-pacha. It is surmounted by a broad, wooden frame, on

which

which are crowded ornaments, gilding, sentences, and inscriptions. At this period workmen were employed in building in the park of artillery, situated on the side of the square, a triple row of barracks which are disposed in the figure of an amphitheatre, and have a tolerably handsome effect. In the square were lying heaps of corn and fruit, on which turtles and sparrows in great numbers were gorging themselves without being in fear of the passengers or the master of these commodities.

The Turks have, in this respect, the greatest indifference: they neither allow themselves to kill these birds nor to drive them away: some even would think themselves very happy in providing for their maintenance. “*Must not these innocent creatures,*” say they, “*find their subsistence? If it please God, we shall next year have a more abundant harvest.*” Some among them build, in various parts of their houses, nests not without a degree of beauty, and take good care not to disturb the loves of these birds, still less to destroy their young. These religious sentiments form a singular contrast with the unjust and oppressive conduct which they hold towards the christians who reside among them and whom they have unmercifully stripped, and by no means agree with that insatiable cupidity which characterises the Turkish nation, and of which I shall frequently have occasion to speak.

On receding from the water-side, the eye extends with pleasure over the suburbs of GALATA, TOP-HANA, PERA, SALYBASARI, and FONDOLLI, which you leave on the left, and which presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre. You presently arrive in front of the seraglio of BECHIK-TACHE, of which I have already spoken. You then see the village of that name, together with those of ORTA-KEUI, KOUROU-TCHESME, and ARNAOUD-KEUI; but all this space forms, properly speaking, only one contiguous village, where are seen some very handsome houses almost entirely built of wood and variously painted: those belonging to the Turks are in white or red; those of the

Greeks,

Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are of a blackish brown. The latter are not allowed to employ the colours of the Mussulmans: in TURKEY, the houses, like the garments, distinguish the master from the slave.

The ground forms, all along the channel, a chain of schistose hills, very fertile, covered with cypresses, oaks, lime-trees, chefnut-trees, arbutuses, myrtles, brooms, and vines, which present an infinitely agreeable aspect. These hills are interrupted by some vallies of the greatest fertility, which contribute to vary and embellish the picture. Gardens more or less spacious, adorned with flowers and kiosks disposed in such a manner as to receive the current of air, and afford at a distance a view of the channel, make these houses places of enjoyment and delight. Most of the rich inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE here pass in summer the whole day, alone, squatted on a sofha, employed in smoking, drinking coffee, casting their eyes on passengers, and rolling in their fingers chaplets of coral, agate, and precious stones.

We landed, near the castle of EUROPE, in order to examine some plants and flowers which struck us. We entered into a Turkish burying-ground planted with beautiful cypresses and a few turpentine-trees: we found among others, a beautiful species of fennel-giant five or six feet high, different from the narrow-leaved fennel giant, and several species of campanula; we saw the beautiful violet, rough carabus, which I have described and drawn in my *Entomologie* \*. After having spent several hours on shore, we returned to our caïque; we soon passed ROUMILI-HISSAR, situated on a sloping ground. This castle, built under CONSTANTINE PALEOLOGUS, last emperor of the EAST, by MAHOMET II, when he was meditating the conquest of CONSTANTINOPLE, is much more calculated at this day to serve as a scare-crow, than to oppose the passage of a ship of the line. In fact, a single frigate would soon

\* *Entom. ou Hist. Nat. des Insectes*. Vol. III. *Carabe*. N° 7. pl. viii. fig. 83.

knock to pieces all the gun-carriages and dismount the guns which are exposed to view on the beach, and put to flight the gunners, whom nothing shelters. This is the case with the castle of ASIA which lies on the other side of the channel : its construction is no better, and cannot defend the approaches of the capital.

In this place it was that DARIUS, king of PERSIA, established a bridge of boats in order to carry over his army when he wished to make war against the Scythians. By this place too it was that the crusaders, animated by a holy zeal, entered ASIA, in order to deliver the Holy Land from the yoke of the Mahometans.

We followed the coast of EUROPE, because the waters which come from the BLACK SEA, form a current more rapid in the middle of the channel and towards the coast of ASIA. The caïques which are ascending, all follow the same route, whereas, in returning to CONSTANTINOPLE, mariners take care to keep in the middle of the channel, and even to approach the coast of ASIA a little more than that of EUROPE ; which facilitates their return, especially if a light northerly wind allow them to spread their sails.

If we consider the quantity of water which the BLACK SEA receives from the DANUBE, the DNIESTER, the DNIEPER, and the DON, as well as from a great number of rivers and torrents which descend from Mount CAUCASUS and the hills of MINGRELIA, or which come from GEORGIA, ARMENIA, and NATOLIA, we shall perceive that, confined in a basin too narrow, these waters would have been obliged to spread themselves more in order to provide for a greater evaporation and put themselves in equilibrio, had they not found an issue through the BOSPHORUS and the channel of the DARDANELLES. It is by this means that the surplus of the waters of that sea is incessantly flowing out, and is poured into the MEDITERRANEAN : and this is what

what explains to us why the waters of the BLACK SEA and those of the PROPONTIS are less salt than those of the MEDITERRANEAN and of the OCEAN.

The current is so strong, that the channel, in some places, rather resembles a river than an arm of the sea: it is seen to oppose the progress of a ship when the south wind blows but faintly. The direction of the coasts compels the waters to set more towards those of ASIA, and to form on that side a more rapid current; however, at the point of ARNAOUD-KEUI, one is obliged to ascend by tracking, by means of a rope which is thrown to some sailors who remain continually on the shore. The waters, in this part, have such a rapidity, that it would be impossible to proceed by rowing without going to a distance from the land: but when this obstacle is overcome, the current is scarcely any longer perceptible, and even, in various places, the direction of the capes causes the waters to ascend, as in rivers; which favours the progress of a boat, as is to be remarked, in a very evident manner, from TOP-HANA to beyond FONDOCLI, because the waters, setting with impetuosity on the advanced point of the seraglio of CONSTANTINOPLE, they there divide: one part of them makes the tour of the harbour, returns along HAS-KEUI, the Arsenal, GALATA, TOP-HANA, and ascends afterwards to FONDOCLI and BECHIK-TACHE, while the other sets immediately into the Sea of MARMORA. This separation of the waters, as well as their direction, is much more apparent after a heavy rain, when they are disturbed by the small river which discharges itself into the head of the harbour.

This circular motion of the waters of the channel, united to that of the small river of which I have just spoken, rids the harbour of CONSTANTINOPLE, as I have said elsewhere, of the ordures which the Turks throw into it, and at the same time sweeps away all the filth which the rain-waters carry into it in winter from every part of the city, and which would not fail to choke

choke it up ~~one day~~, because the Turks, by no means susceptible of foresight, would be at no expence for keeping it in order.

For a long time we saw flocks of birds passing and repassing continually towards the middle of the channel, skimming the surface of the water and flying with the greatest swiftness. The Europeans designate them by the name of *damned souls*, because they think that they see in them restless beings, tormented by the wish of proceeding incessantly from the BLACK SEA into the MEDITERRANEAN, and from the latter into the former. As soon as we had passed the first castle, we directed our boatmen to recede from the coast, and advance towards the middle of the channel. Our intention was to shoot at these birds, in order to ascertain their species, and to preserve some of them. We soon came up to them: they passed sufficiently near the caïque in which we were, to permit us to kill several at every shot. The boatmen were Turks: they at first rowed without repugnance towards the birds which the first discharge of our pieces had brought down; but, because we would not allow them to cut their throat, which would have damaged the plumage, we had the greatest difficulty to make them row afterwards toward those which a second discharge had also brought down; so that, soon participating ourselves in the compassion with which the sight of these birds struggling with death must inspire all, we very quickly smothered them and contented ourselves with taking four of them. We wrapped them up in a cloth in order to conceal them from the sight of our boatmen, and to preserve their plumage; after which we again directed our route towards the coast of EUROPE.

The Mussulmans, from a sentiment of piety or religion, are in the habit of cutting the throat or chopping off the head of all the animals which they bring down by a musket shot or otherwise, even when they are quite dead. This custom is so generally and so religiously observed, that, in the different coun-

tries which we visited, we were seldom able to obtain even for any money, that the throat of the birds which were brought to us should not be cut; and when we were present, it was frequently very difficult for us to prevent it.

The bird that we had just taken is a slight variety of the petrel-puffin \*. It differs from it by its make being a little smaller and by the bill being entirely black. By the account of seamen, it makes its nest on the shores of the BLACK SEA, and scarcely lives on any thing but fish. Its flesh is not good to be eaten.

We soon reached the point of YENI-KEUI, whence we had a charming view of TARAPIA and BUYUK-DÉRÉ. Having arrived off TARAPIA, our eyes were directed with pleasure towards the BLACK SEA, which we discovered at the distance of upwards of two leagues: our imagination was already measuring its extent; we were already impatient to visit its shore; and, like new Argonauts, we were already forming the project of carrying off from these regions all the productions of nature, in order to convey them into our own country. Circumstances, as will be seen, somewhat counteracted our projects, and forced us to direct our first steps into countries better known, more frequented, but no less interesting.

We arrived at an early hour at BUYUK-DÉRÉ: it was a holiday. In the evening, we wished to take a walk in the meadow, and see the famous plane-tree which had long since been mentioned to us, and of which some travellers have given a slight description. Seven or eight trees of an enormous size, adhering at their base, rise circularly and leave in the middle a rather considerable space. A great many Greeks and Armenians were seated on the turf, under the shade of these trees, and smoking their pipes: different

\* *Procellaria puffinus*.

groups of Turkish and Armenian women, veiled and furrounded by their children, were seated apart: some Greek women richly dressed, more or less handsome, fixed the looks and the attention of some Europeans whom the crowd of people had attracted. Several Turks were in the enclosure of the plane-tree, smoking their pipe, and drinking coffee which had just been prepared for them hard by.

The moment was not favourable for the observations which we wished to make; however, we approached the tree, and when we were by the side of the Turks they invited us to sit down near them: they offered us pipes and coffee which we accepted, and, by means of a French drogouman who accompanied us, we carried on a conversation not very important. We had an opportunity of seeing at our hotel two of these Turks, and of offering them, in our turn, an excellent dinner and the best wine that is drunk in CONSTANTINOPLE.

The plane-tree often presents at its base a considerable expansion of a diameter double and triple that of the trunk, and which may exceed thirty feet, as we have seen in some places, so that it frequently happens, when the tree dies of age, that it sends forth all round the stump, shoots which form so many new trees; this, no doubt, is what has happened to the plane-tree of BUYUK-DÉRÉ. We remarked, indeed, that the seven or eight trunks of which it is formed, appear to have a common origin, and that they are all connected by their base.

The plane tree grows naturally throughout the EAST: it is common on the banks of the rivulets in GREECE, in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the coast of ASIA MINOR, in SYRIA, and in PERSIA. Its wood is not inferior, for cabinet-work, to any wood of EUROPE; it takes a beautiful polish, and is very agreeably veined. The Persians employ no other

for their furniture, their doors, and their windows. This tree deserves to be more generally cultivated in FRANCE, as well on account of the qualities of its wood, as from the beauty of its foliage and the cool shade which it affords. It acquires, in a good soil a little moist, a size at which no European tree arrives.

It is well known that the Romans conveyed this tree into ITALY, and that they propagated the culture of it to such a degree in their gardens and country-houses, that PLINY and HORACE exclaimed against the abuse which was made of it in their time. It was then difficult to make a better choice, and to procure a tree more beautiful and better calculated for affording a cool shade. There was, according to PLINY, a plane tree, in CYPRUS, and another at the fountain of GORTYNA in CRETE, which preserved their leaves all the year. We must, doubtless, place this assertion among the fables which antiquity has transmitted to us, or at least consider these trees as different from common plane-trees.

BUYUK-DÉRÉ or the *GREAT VALLEY*, is a village situated in the broadest part of the channel, on a sort of gulf, about six miles from the BLACK SEA. The houses stand on the sea-shore, and occupy near a mile in extent: those belonging to most of the ambassadors, built in the European taste, are remarkable for their elegance and the beauty of their gardens. As this village is scarcely occupied except by Europeans, Greeks, and Armenians, it would be an infinitely agreeable place of residence, if the ambassadors would bring themselves to lay aside, especially in the country, the ceremony, etiquette, and preferences which accompany them every where. The man who is fond of good living, and who is not in a condition to procure it for himself at his own home, finds at their table the reward of his complaisance and the indemnification of the incivilities which he is often obliged to put up with.

The Armenian women, here as elsewhere, live retired, and do not appear in the streets unveiled ; the Greek women live with as little constraint as in the capital, and contribute to render the monotony of society supportable. It were to be wished, however, that they joined, to a face generally handsome and to their natural gaiety, a mind more cultivated, a heart more loving, and that they shewed less avidity for money and less taste for trifles.

The channel anciently known under the name of the *BOSPHORUS OF THRACE*, is near seven leagues long, and about twenty miles from the point of the seraglio of CONSTANTINOPLE to the CYANEAN Islands. It is not two miles in its greatest width, and it is so narrow in several places, that some ancient authors have advanced that a person may hear the birds sing from the one shore to the other, and that two men may easily hold a conversation across the channel.

The next day after our arrival at BUYUK-DÉRÉ, the weather being very fine, and the water perfectly smooth, we hastened to go on the BLACK SEA, in order to visit the shore at some distance from the mouth of the channel. We frequently landed, as well to examine the coast, as to observe the plants and the various productions of nature that were there to be met with.

As soon as we had passed the village, we were struck at seeing on both shores, indications of a volcano which we followed for an extent of several leagues. We distinguished every where rocks more or less changed or decomposed ; every where accumulation and confusion attest the action of subterraneous fires : we perceived jaspers of various colours, carnelians, agates, and chalcidies in veins among porphyries more or less changed ; a breach by no means solid, almost decomposed, formed by fragments of trap, agglutinated by calcareous spar ; a handsome porphyry on a rocky base of greenish trap, coloured by copper : in short, we saw, over an extent of upwards of half a league,

league, a hard rock of trap of a greenish blue, in like manner coloured by copper.

It is this last, no doubt, that occasioned the ancients to give the name of *CYANEÆ* or *CYANEAN ISLANDS* to some islets which were situated at the mouth of the channel, near the coast of EUROPE. At this day they are nothing more than very small rocks; which leads us to believe that their size has diminished from the constant action of the waters which has eaten them away and undermined them by degrees. These rocks were also called *SYMPLEGADES*, because they appeared united or joined, according to the place whence they were viewed. As they are more or less apparent, according as the north or south wind raises or lowers the waters in this part, the Greeks, always inclined to the marvellous, have supposed that these islands were floating and infinitely dangerous to imprudent or inattentive mariners.

On one of these rocks the Romans erected an altar to *APOLLO*, which, at *CONSTANTINOPLE*, is improperly called *POMPEY'S PILLAR*. Several travellers have made efforts to read the Latin inscription which is there to be found; but the letters are at present so effaced, that it is difficult, perhaps even impossible, to accomplish that task.

We had not time to see whether the indications of a volcano extend to a great distance in *ASIA*, because about ten or eleven o'clock in the morning the wind blew from the northern quarter, and raised a great swell on the sea: it would have been imprudent, in a small caïque, to cross from the point of *EUROPE*, where we were, to that of *ASIA*. We contented ourselves with coasting the European shore for some time, and with convincing ourselves that the indications of the volcano extend on that side to upwards of a league.

The width of the channel, at its mouth, is from eighteen to nineteen hundred toises. The entrance is defended, on each side, by fortifications erected by Baron DE TOTT, and augmented lately by some French engineers. The Turks, through ignorance, through foreign influence, or through motives of economy, have always opposed the execution of the plans which the engineers presented to them, though it was very important for them to deprive their natural enemies of the means of coming to disturb them even in their capital. In fact, it would be very easy for the Russians, at this moment, to penetrate into the channel, with a northerly wind, and to advance as far as CONSTANTINOPLE, because the batteries being few in number and small, the guns would soon be dismounted by the fire of a line-of-battle ship. A fleet, besides, would escape by receiving a few shot, if the Turkish gunners were more skilful, more exercised and more active than they are.

At some distance from these fortifications, there is in EUROPE and in ASIA a light house for guiding mariners and pointing out to them the mouth of the channel; which does not prevent shipwrecks from being very frequent when the wind is a little strong, because the Turks and Greeks, navigating on the BLACK SEA, without a compass and at a little distance from the land, are easily disconcerted when they lose sight of the coast, or no longer distinguish where they are. Frequently it happens to them, when the weather is foggy, to take a direction contrary to that of their course. Citizen BEAUCHAMP, returning from TREBISOND, met with a Turkish ship which was steering to the eastward, thinking that she was standing for CONSTANTINOPLE: he had no small difficulty to convince the master of his mistake and persuade him to follow the vessel in which he was embarked.

## CHAPTER IX.

*An error to be found in the Charts of the Black Sea.—Giant's Mountain.—Earthquake.—Environs of Belgrade.—Mine of fossil wood.—Mode of fishing followed in the environs of Constantinople.*

THE fanaticism and ignorance of the Turks having always opposed a barrier to the navigation of the European powers on the BLACK SEA, it follows that the charts published to this day are very defective. CITIZEN BEAUCHAMP having been requested, by the National Institute, to determine, in a precise manner, the true position of the capes and principal towns situated on that sea, could never procure the consent of the PORTE to furnish him with the means nor permission to go thither to make his observations. The promise even of communicating the results which he might obtain, had no effect on the Turkish government or on the captain-pacha. The latter answered the drogouman who was speaking to him on the subject; “*We have navigated on this sea for a long time past; we do not want to be better acquainted with it, and all your observations would tend only to give a more exact knowledge of it to our enemies.*”

However, by dint of solicitations, Citizen BEAUCHAMP obtained permission to travel as a naturalist, and it was under this title that he surveyed the coast as far as TRIBISOND. It results from his observations, that the south coast advances in some places about a degree more towards the north, that Capes KÉRENPE and INDJE are nearly in the forty-second degree, that the Gulf of SAMSON is much deeper, and that TRIBISOND is five or six leagues more

to the westward than it is laid down on the charts. We had not the means of seeing the eastern coast and of detecting the errors concerning it. Thus it is that a fanatic and anti-social nation prevents, not only the diffusion of knowledge at home, but also objects to others coming thither for the purpose of discovering useful truths.

It is, undoubtedly, needless to establish hypotheses and enquire whether there was a period when the waters of the BLACK SEA, after having broken their dam, made an irruption into those of the MEDITERRANEAN, or whether the communication of those two seas be as ancient as their formation; it ought to be sufficient for a traveller to state facts: inductions will be easily drawn from them, when we shall have acquired a more exact knowledge of local circumstances. We regret not having had it in our power to visit all the shores of the BLACK SEA, in order to examine whether they indicate that the waters had risen formerly to a height above that which they have at this day, and whether, after having broken the dam which the lands opposed to them, they have not fallen all at once to the point where they now remain. It is not to be doubted that the sudden fall of the waters, if it had taken place, would have left manifest traces; the lands would present at a distance considerable strands, imperceptible declivities, recent vestiges of marine bodies, &c. &c.

Opposite to BUYUK-DÈRÈ is to be remarked in ASIA, a hill a little more elevated than the other, situated on the shore of the channel; it is known by the name of *GIANT'S MOUNTAIN*: it is famous from an infinite number of fables accredited, and from the supposition that there exists on it the grave of a giant. This hill is schistose, and has nothing remarkable but the fertility of its soil. Grass grows there in abundance, vegetation is vigorous, and the number of scarce and curious plants is sufficiently considerable to merit

the attention of the botanist. One part had been laid down in corn; a numerous flock came every day to graze on the other.

From the top of this hill are to be admired various prospects infinitely agreeable and diversified: on one side, is perceived the BLACK SEA: on the other, the Sea of MARMORA: the eye extends with pleasure over the fertile, hilly, and wild soil of EUROPE and ASIA, and one follows with a sort of rapture all the windings of the channel.

We afterwards strolled over different hills covered with brooms, rock-roses, arbutuses, and heath: we found the famous hellebore of HIPPOCRATES, the *daphne pontica* very common, a beautiful species of *bupleurum*, and a *laserpitium* which yielded us, in preparing it, a species of resinous gum very odoriferous, somewhat similar to gum ammoniac. We saw a great number of Greeks employed in tearing up the stumps of the arbutus, in order to make charcoal of it, as, in the department of the VAR and elsewhere, an excellent charcoal is made with the stumps of the *tree* heath and the *brush* heath.

On the 28th of Prairial (16th of June) at a few minutes past eleven o'clock in the morning, we felt a slight shock of an earthquake: the weather was then perfectly calm, the air a little foggy, and the heat somewhat powerful. It is well known that, in all times, these countries have been exposed to violent shocks. Historians relate that the temple erected by CONSTANTINE the Great to divine wisdom, was thrown down by an earthquake a little time after its construction. The superb church of ST. SOPHIA, built by JUSTINIAN on the ruins of the temple itself, suffered a little at another epoch. In 1509, under the reign of BAJAZET, a great part of CONSTANTINOPLE was likewise thrown down by a violent earthquake: but BITHYNIA, all the south coast of the BLACK SEA, almost all ASIA MINOR, and especially SYRIA, are still more  
subject

subject to it. SMYRNA has been several times destroyed almost to the very ground. BURSA, NICEA, and NICODEMIA have experienced the same fate. We shall speak elsewhere of the earthquakes of SYRIA on the occasion of that which, during our stay in PERSIA, threw down a great part of the houses of LATAKIA.

A few days after, we directed our steps towards the valley of BUYUK-DÉRÉ; we crossed a wood of chestnut-trees and oaks; we passed under the first aqueducts, and, after two hours' walk, we arrived at BELGRADE, a small village where the ambassadors formerly passed the summer, but which they have abandoned by degrees, because the air is become insalubrious, since the Turks have neglected to keep in order and cleanse the little lake which lies near the village. This lake has been formed in a valley, by means of a thick wall which stops the rain-waters and those of some little springs which run thither. It furnishes a part of the water which has been brought to CONSTANTINOPLE for the wants of the inhabitants.

In PERSIA, we have several times seen such walls erected for the irrigation of the lands. This method is so simple, that we are surprised that it is not generally adopted in countries where water is wanting, in regions where the productions are infinitely more considerable and more valuable, when, during the summer, there can be introduced on a soil, a quantity of water sufficient for the watering of the plants which it is there wished to cultivate. In all mountainous countries, in gorges, in places where a valley grows narrow, a wall in masonry may be constructed, and strengthened on the outside by earth brought for that purpose. There would necessarily be formed during the winter and spring, the ordinary seasons of rains, a lake more or less extensive, according to the disposition of the ground and the choice that may have been made of it. This water may afterwards be distributed, either for the wants of a city, as at CONSTANTINOPLE, or for the

irrigation of lands situated below, as in PERSIA. It will, in certain places, be sufficiently abundant to afford several fountains to a town, and to water, besides, a part of its territory.

In the environs of BELGRADE, are met with several little villages, at no great distance from each other, almost all inhabited by Greeks. The fields present some degree of culture : vineyards and a few gardens are there to be seen. All this country affords fine cluster or stalk-fruited oaks \*, whose wood is very hard and very fit for ship-building. Various aqueducts constructed by the emperors of the EAST, for the purpose of bringing water to CONSTANTINOPLE, attract admiration.

The environs of BELGRADE are very well calculated for shooting ; you may there kill pheasants, woodcocks, red partridges, several species of ducks, hares, roes, and sometimes red deer. Quails are very plentiful in autumn ; you also see the starling, the thrush, the blackbird, the turtle, the roller, the loriote, the cuckoo, and almost all the birds of EUROPE.

For some days past we had seen, in the evening and during the night, little phosphoric bodies scattered in great numbers in the air, crossing each other in every direction, succeeding each other, tracing a luminous track and disappearing with the rapidity of lightning. We soon discovered that this was the little Italian glow-worm †, the male and female of which are equally provided with wings, and equally luminous.

We had long known that there existed a coal-mine on the shores of the BLACK SEA, and another in the environs of RODOSTO ; but we had not yet

\* Chêne à grappe. *Quercus racemosa*. LAMARCK. *Encycl.* No. 1.

† *Lampyrus Italica*.

taken any step towards seeing them. Some Armenians who had recently obtained permission from the captain-pacha to work the former for the wants of the arsenal, were very glad to have a conversation with us on that subject : their object was to learn from us the means of working their mine, from which they as yet drew but a coal of bad quality. We wished to proceed to the spot, which gave them great pleasure ; so that, in the course of Thermidor, we set out from BUYUK-DÉRÉ, in order to repair thither. We crossed a country very uneven, a little mountainous, at first volcanic, then schistose, uncultivated, covered with rock-roses, arbutuses and broom : we went to three or four small villages, and we arrived on the shores of the BLACK SEA, after having walked near half an hour on a low sandy ground, covered with a pretty bindweed with oval, downy leaves \*.

The coast, elevated upwards of twenty toises, almost perpendicular for a great extent, presents nothing but a mixture of clay and calcareous earth, gray or bluish, in which are to be remarked a few veins, more or less thick, of vegetable substances, and especially of pieces of wood very distinguishable, which have not yet entirely reached the state of charcoal. The waters of the sea, when violently agitated by a wind rather strong from the north or the east, come to the very edge of the coast ; but when they are smooth or nearly so, there is seen for a great extent a strand of several toises in breadth, covered with stones and pebbles.

The Armenians worked this coaly substance only by cutting perpendicularly all the soil ; this occasioned them a considerable expense for which they received no indemnity, since they did not yet procure any real coal. We had some difficulty to make them understand that it was necessary to form galleries and penetrate into the mine. But, as we conjectured, either that the

\* *Convolvulus Persicus.*

mine was good for nothing, or that the coal would be much lower, we prevailed on them to clear away the soil and penetrate into the veins which they should discover beneath. "If your first essays," added we, "should not procure you a better coal than that which you have hitherto obtained, relinquish your undertaking."

The mine which lies in the environs of *RODOSTO* on the *PROPONTIS*, appears to be of better quality than that on the shores of the *BLACK SEA*, were we to judge from some specimens taken at the surface; for it has not yet been worked, though it is at a little distance from the sea. We were assured that it extended afar, and that it was met with again in the environs of *ERÉCLII*.

In all seasons of the year, fish is extremely common in the *PROPONTIS*, the *BOSPHORUS*, and the *BLACK SEA*; but as the Turks make very little use of this food, and as there is scarcely any other than the table of the Europeans and that of the rich Greeks and Armenians which are set out with it, it follows that there are very few fishermen throughout the *EAST*, and that at *CONSTANTINOPLE* even few persons apply themselves to this kind of industry.

We are not here speaking of salted fish which comes in the way of trade, from the *BLACK SEA*, or from some countries of *GREECE*: as it is at a low price, it is in request with the poor Greeks, Armenians and Jews, who make of it a rather great consumption.

The mode of fishing the most followed in the environs of the capital, consists in erecting in the places which are known to be frequented by stationary fishes or by fishes of passage, a scaffold in the form of an *X*, on the top of which a man places himself in order to observe the moment when the net, spread at the foot of it, is full of fish: at the signal which he gives, the net is drawn, and the fish are taken.

The bonito, which some ichthyologists improperly take for the young tunny, is there in great plenty, especially at the end of the summer and in autumn. The bearded mullet, the *pageau* \*, the dorado, the turbot, the mackarel, the sole, the whiting, are the fishes the most in request and the most common of those seas.

In the environs of CONSTANTINOULE, are also taken various shell-fish more or less esteemed by the Greeks. The oyster is abundant and very well flavoured. Muscles there acquire a considerable size. Lobsters and sea cray-fish are there to be eaten in great plenty: the latter is as good there as in the South of FRANCE.

The dolphin appears not unfrequently in every season of the year. These fishes are seen to come in shoals into the very harbour, and play on the surface of the water, especially when the sea is smooth, and the wind blows from the south quarter. The people of the country, more ignorant and more credulous than the ancients, relate respecting the dolphin an infinite number of stories all equally ridiculous, which we shall dispense with repeating.

\* We are ignorant what fish is here meant; but we will take an opportunity of informing our readers, when we have consulted the Author.—*Translator.*

## TRAVELS IN THE

### CHAPTER X.

*Excursion to Princes' Islands.—Amusement which is there to be found.—Description of them.—Their culture and their productions.—Advantageous position for the establishment of a lazaretto.*

WE had already made two excursions to PRINCES' Islands, the one in Messidor, the other in Thermidor: we resolved, towards the end of Fructidor year I, (1793) to go thither for the third time, in order to examine them completely and to ascertain all their productions. Several of our friends accompanied us, as well to divert themselves after their occupations, as to shoot quails, extremely plentiful and very easy to be killed in this season. A merchant was so kind as to receive us into his country-house and take on himself all the details of the expense. We hired two large caïques, and, in two hours, with a light breeze from the north north-east, we reached the harbour of PRINKIPOS, nearly twelve miles distant from GALATA. The sea was so smooth that no one was sick; so that we were able to enjoy, at our ease, the different prospects presented to us by the coast of ASIA. We soon passed CHALCEDON, the deep bay which lies beyond it, and the cape planted with cypresses which comes next, and on which the Turks have erected a light-house. We left at a distance on the right, PROTA and ANTIGONA; we approached nearer to CHALKIS, and we arrived at PRINKIPOS before sun-set.

The town is situated on the east part of the island, along the sea-shore: it is almost entirely peopled by Greeks, the greater part mariners or cultivators. Its population may be estimated at two or three thousand inhabitants. The coast of ASIA being distant only about two leagues, ships anchor in all seasons with safety, under shelter of all these islands, but more particularly at

one or two cables' length from the village of CHALKIS and PRINKIPOS: the caiques come and moor along the shore, to a sort of quay.

The difficulty of repairing to CONSTANTINOPLE, when the weather is bad or the wind a little too strong, has induced the ambassadors and agents of foreign powers, to prefer a residence at BELGRADE, TARAFIA, and BUYUFDÉKÉ, where the air is less pure, less wholesome, and where the plague makes its appearance more frequently than in these islands. But this disadvantage is compensated by the power which they have of setting out at all times from those three villages, in a carriage or on horseback, while they would be obliged sometimes at the islands, to wait for favourable weather for returning to the capital, whither urgent business may call them every moment.

We arrived in the most agreeable season and at the period of the year when the concourse of people is the greatest. We had every evening, in a coffee-house open to all the curious and all the amateurs a sight much relished by the Turks, and frequented even by the most decent women, although it most frequently represented scenes at which European females, the most shameless, would have blushed to be present: true it is that these women did not enter the coffee-house, but contented themselves with remaining in the street, whence they could perceive every thing. This sight is called *Karagucuze*, a sort of *Ombres Chinoises* which constitute the delight of the capital, and which individuals in easy circumstances procure themselves from time to time at their own houses. The scene which most diverted the spectators, was that of a he-afis amusing himself with a Jew. We were surprised, the first time that we were present at the kara-gucuze, to see the Turks, naturally grave and silent, give themselves up to immoderate laughter at the sight of these obscenities. "What inconsistency," said we, "in a nation which breaks out against libertinism with an extreme rigour, often with ferocity, which punishes some-

“times with death the flightest attack on morals, which will not tolerate  
 “prostitutes, and which permits in public such an indecency!”

The islands known under the name of PRINCES' Islands, are seven in number, four large, and five small ones. The first is called *PROTA*; the second, *ANTIGONA*; the third, *CHALKIS*; and the fourth, *PRINKIPOS*; to the south of the latter, lies the little island called *RABBIT* Island; to the west, are two small islands, one of which is known by the name of *OXTA*, and the other by that of *PLATA*: the two others are nothing but nameless rocks.

*PRINKIPOS* is the most considerable and the most fertile of them all: it appeared to us entirely volcanic and formed of quartz, granites, &c. &c. altered or decomposed. The land is elevated, uneven, and hilly. It is dry and arid on the hills, red and tolerably fertile in the bottoms, and especially to the south of the town. The natural productions are the *ALEPPO* pine, known in the South of FRANCE by the name of *pin blanc*; the *oxycedrus* or brown-berried juniper; the broad-leaved phillyrea, the arbutus, the prickly pimpinella, the pale-flowered French lavender, the broom, the acute-leaved asparagus, the Cretan cistus or rock-rose, the turpentine-tree, a species of savory, the mallow-leaved bindweed, &c. &c.

The wild olive-tree is to be found in abundance on all the hills. We likewise saw it in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the rising grounds of the HELLESPONT and on those of ASIA MINOR, at no great distance from the sea. It is small and stunted when it is without culture, and exposed to be gnawed by cattle. Does it grow naturally in all the places where we saw it? Is it in some a remnant of ancient culture? This is a question on which we shall avoid giving our opinion.

This tree does not grow on the borders of the BOSPHORUS nor in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, because the cold is sometimes more sharply felt there than at PRINCE'S Islands, on account of the vicinity of the BLACK SEA. But it is to be found strong and vigorous in the south part of the PROPONTIS, and on the shores of the HELLESFONT. Some tolerably fine ones are to be seen scattered in the fields of PRINKIPOS. I am ignorant whether it be cultivated on the coast of RODOSTO and of ERÉCLI: I had no opportunity of visiting that country.

The culture of PRINKIPOS consists in a few fields sown with wheat, barley, chick-peas, kidney-beans, broad beans, &c. The vine is not there abundant; it is planted and trimmed as in the south of FRANCE: it yields two or three sorts of very good grapes, from which wine is seldom made. In this island the inhabitants prefer carrying the grapes to the markets of CONSTANTINOPLE, and there selling them.

Near the town are several gardens, in which are cultivated with no great skill a few kitchen-garden plants and fruit-trees, among which are distinguished a species of fig-tree with fruit greenish without, red within, and of an excellent quality.

This island has several times served as a prison or place of exile to the Greek princes. Among others we recall to mind that IRENE, a young Athenian woman, born of noble but obscure parents, raised to the throne by the charms of her mind and the graces of her person, set no bounds to her ambition, and stained herself by various crimes after the death of LEON PORPHYROGENETES, her husband. She was dethroned by NICEPHORUS, one of her confidants, and banished to a monastery of this island, which she herself had caused to be erected\*.

\* Some authors say that she was sent to Lesbos.

Our fowling-pieces procured us every day a considerable quantity of quails. We had excellent pointers, which enabled us to come very close to them before we put them up. They generally build their nests under the rock-rose, the prickly pimpinella, or other little shrubs; and as there are no trees in those places they are very easily shot. They are extremely fat and very well tasted; in the spring they are much more scarce and less flavoury. We saw some other birds of passage, such as turtles, rollers, loriot, thrushes, &c. and in particular falcons and sparrow-hawks.

Hares are very scarce at PRINKIPOS, and rabbits are not there to be found; but the latter are in plenty in the little desert island which bears their name. We sometimes procured ourselves the pleasure of this diversion, and we always brought back several rabbits. It is necessary to arrive very early in the morning, and surprise them before they have re-entered their burrows.

Fishing afforded us still more resources than fowling: we were every day served with oysters, muscles, and several fishes, such as maclarel, bonito, turbot, and particularly the bearded mullet. We several times found in the stomach of this last fish a very small species of sea-urchin which we have preserved, and which we shall publish among the other articles of natural history.

The run from the town of PRINKIPOS to that of CHALKIS is nearly a league, and caïques are always to be found ready to receive passengers. We had apprised the superior of the monastery of the TRINITY, of the day we should visit his convent and take a dinner with him, in order that we might not find him unprovided; for, in general, the caloyers are very temperate and their fare is very scanty. One is fortunate to find in their convent, honey, eggs, and some fruit. Strangers, in order to make a return for the civilities which they receive under their roof, never fail to visit the church, and to leave in a basin the pieces of money which they judge proper to give.

This

This monastery, situated on a hill almost in the middle of the island, enjoys a charming prospect: the air there is very salubrious, and it is not uncommon to find a numerous society, because Europeans and even Greeks frequently go thither to spend a part of the summer, far from the bustle and tumult of the capital. We stopped a long time to contemplate over the door of the church the representation of hell, purgatory, and paradise, although the painting was very bad. Hell was filled with Mussulmans, bishops, archbishops, and Greeks richly dressed; purgatory and paradise were peopled only by caloyers, papas, or priests, and Greeks more simply dressed. We asked the friars who accompanied us, if they were not afraid of some mischief on the part of the Turks for damning them in this manner. They told us that this had happened to them once, but that they had got out of the scrape for a little money. They added, that they set a great value on their picture, and that they would preserve it as long as they could, without exposing themselves too much.

There is another monastery in the south-east part of the island, remarkable from several beautiful alleys of cypresses, and from a wood of pines, from a spacious building, and from the number of caloyers who reside there. The latter, though very agreeably situated, does not, like the other, enjoy so extensive and so diversified a prospect.

There are likewise two monasteries at ΠΙΝΚΙΠΟΣ, situated in the most elevated and the most solitary places in the island. The caloyers apply themselves to the culture of the fields belonging to their monastery, or to some branch of industry useful to the community. Their wants are very limited, because they have never allowed luxury to be introduced among them: their health is for a long time preserved strong and vigorous by moderate labour, temperance, and peace of mind; and what, perhaps, constitutes their greatest happiness,

happiness, is that the Turks do not come to disturb the repose and tranquillity which they enjoy in these places.

CHALKIS is less considerable than PRINKIPOS, and its village is a little less extensive; its productions are nearly the same, and the soil presents every where indications of a volcano. On the hill nearest the village is found a hard, brittle rock, which appears ferruginous; and, towards the south-east part of the island, a mine of copper which appears to have been anciently worked: it is probably from this circumstance that it derived the name of CHALKIS, from the Greek word χαλκος, which signifies copper: but we saw nothing that indicates the gold-mine of which ARISTOTLE and STEPHEN of BYSANTIUM have spoken.

If the Turks were capable of perceiving that it is easy to secure themselves from the plague by taking against that terrible scourge the precautions which are employed in EUROPE, the position of PRINCES' Islands would, no doubt, be invaluable for the accomplishment of that object, and for the security of the capital by sea: a lazaretto might be established at PROTA or at ANTIGONA, because those islands have very few inhabitants, and ships anchor there in great safety. In the former of those two islands exist also the ruins of a village and two monasteries, which attest that it is susceptible of some degree of culture, and that it may afford places for walking and recreation to persons who might be obliged to perform quarantine.

CHAPTER XI.

*We enter a harem.—Marriage of the Mussulmans. —Polygamy.—Its results.—Influence of women in all affairs.*

TWO days after our return from PRINCES' Islands, we were invited by a *capidgi-buchi* to embark on the BOSPHORUS, and proceed to visit his mother who had been ill for some time, in order to give our opinion to a Greek physician that attended her, and prescribe the treatment which we should judge the most proper. The envoy of the Republic, at whose house we were at that moment, warmly solicited us to render service to a man who enjoyed great influence with the Grand Signior, and who might be useful to the French established in the LEVANT. We acceded the more willingly to the entreaties of the envoy, as by obliging a man in power, we were enabled to satisfy our curiosity. In fact, for a long time past I had been wishing to see the interior of a Turkish family, and to carry an observing eye into the very harems, in order to learn the arrangements of them, and remark the customs which are there established. Physic frequently furnished me with this opportunity in the course of our travels, and put it in my power to see that, in spite of bolts and keepers, women will find means to be revenged for the tyranny of men.

An appointment was made for the next morning. We set out early, accompanied by a drogueman and a janizary belonging to the legation, and we arrived at the house of the *capidgi* at the same time as the Greek physician. We were received in a handsome kiosk, a sort of saloon open on the sides, ornamented with paintings, gilding, and Arabic sentences taken from the Koran. In the middle were a *jet d'eau*, and a basin of white marble:

on one side, was a view of the BOSPHORUS; and, on the other, that of a beautiful garden, and of part of the capidgi's house built with much elegance.

After the customary compliments, pipes and coffee were brought: we conversed for some time respecting his mother's disorder, and we learnt with surprise that the physician had found it a more easy matter to make his patient believe that she was bewitched, than to cure her. The capidgi then spoke to us of himself, and communicated to us his particular complaints: he lamented bitterly that he was no longer able, as formerly, to carry into his harem joy and pleasure. This man, forty odd years of age, was, in other respects, robust and of a strong constitution; he had besides abused the pleasures which he regretted, and was obliged to have recourse to an opiate composed of materials the most hot and most irritating, in order to discharge his duties of husband on the night from Thursday to Friday, according to the precept of MAHOMET.

After an hour's conversation, we went to the female patient. no servant followed us. The capidgi made us cross various apartments, the doors of which he himself opened and shut. We arrived at a hall rather spacious, furrounded on three sides by a sofa covered with a beautiful crin'on cloth, trimmed with gold fringe. On the floor were spread a fine Egyptian mat and a few little Persian carpets. The sick woman was in the middle of the room on a light mattress, furrounded by large cushions on which she was leaning. She had her clothes on, according to the custom of the Orientals, who do not undress themselves when they are ill, or when they lie down to sleep. When we entered her apartment, she wore, no doubt on our account, a white muslin veil, which she soon took off: two young female slaves were there to wait on her.

This woman, who was near sixty years old, had an excessive embonpoint; she was troubled with the vapours, and affected with a scrofulous complaint which made its appearance on different parts of her body. She was, in other respects, in tolerable health, and had preserved her appetite. She told us some very singular stories respecting her complaints, which she attributed, among other things, to a malicious female slave who had bewitched her, because she had refused to consent to her being married.

During this conversation, curiosity had attracted the capidgi's women behind a grate which separated the room we were in from that where they were. We saw lifted up, from time to time, a curtain which concealed them, and which they let down when we directed our looks towards them. The two slaves who were near us did not fail to make us feel their pulse, and to ask us various questions: they were young and very handsome; one of them, more bold, notwithstanding the severity of the sick woman, who several times reminded her of her indecorous behaviour, could not help putting her hands on our garments which she thought very extraordinary, and perhaps even indecent, from every part of the body being too apparent for persons accustomed, to see men only with garments very ample; and which conceal the whole body.

We prescribed to the patient a calming opiate and the use of the bitter-sweet or *solanum dulcamara*, which we had perceived in one of our excursions to a village beyond BELGRADE. The capidgi strongly pressed us to come and see him again; which we could not dispense with doing at the expiration of a few days.

When we had left the house, the Greek physician informed us that the harem of this man was composed of thirty Georgian and Circassian slaves, intended for waiting on his wife, a young princess to whom he was indebted for his interest and his fortune. It was since this marriage that the physi-

cian had brought him to the use of aphrodisiacs, and came pretty regularly to his house in order to inquire into their effect.

He likewise informed us of the Turkish laws relative to marriage, and communicated to us several curious observations which his quality of physician had enabled him to make in the harems. In the course of our travels, we ourselves have had opportunities of collecting observations respecting the Mussulman women, of studying their manners comparatively with those of the Greek and French women born in the LEVANT, and of rectifying the ideas which too great precipitation might at first have made us adopt. The reader will not perhaps be displeased with us for the efforts which we made in this respect.

In TURKEY, the law permits three manners of cohabiting with women. TOURNEFORT has said, with reason, that a man married the first, hired the second, and purchased the third.

The Mussulman women live very retired, and do not appear in public without a veil and garments which conceal their figure and disguise their whole body: there is no one but the husband and the nearest relations, such as the fathers, the brothers, and the uncle-germans, who sometimes have access to the harems, and can see a Mussulman woman with her face uncovered. The man who wishes to marry can be acquainted with the charms of the person and the attractions of the mind of his future wife, only from the account of some female relation or friend, or of some intermediatrix of an advanced age. Commonly the latter gives every information that is wanted, tries to smooth all difficulties which may arise, and prepares and arranges all matters. When the relations are agreed among themselves, they fix the sum that the husband shall give as a present to his wife for *the price of her blood*. An inventory is taken of every thing that belongs to the latter, in fur-

niture, clothes, money, or property, because every thing is to be restored to her in case of divorce or repudiation. When she dies without children, the husband keeps a part of what he has received, and returns the other to the relations, as is regulated by the law.

The preliminaries being settled, the future husband, the father or the nearest relation of the young lady, go, with two witnesses, to the house of the cadi, in order to get him to sign the articles of the marriage, and obtain a permission for it in writing. The celebration of the marriage cannot take place but on the eve of the Friday, which answers, among the Mussulmans, to the Sunday of the Christians, and to the Saturday of the Jews. One or two days before, the young lady is conducted to the bath, where she is subjected to depilation for the first time. On the day of the wedding, she dresses herself in the richest clothes that she can procure, and covers herself with jewels, pearls, and pieces of money which the relations very often borrow. They try to embellish the young lady's face, by colouring it with red, white, and blue, and by painting her eyebrows and eyelids black. In certain countries, they next colour the arms and hands with black, paint the nails yellow or black, and the feet an orange colour yellow: lastly, they place with art, on the head-dress and among the braids which hang behind, flowers, pearls, precious stones, and gold coin. In EGYPT and in SYRIA, these braids are very numerous and each is terminated by one or more sequins.

Thus adjusted and placed on a seat more elevated than the sofa, she is to compose her carriage, cast her eyes down or keep them shut, while a troop of women invited to the feast give themselves up to joy, and various dances are performed, the company singing or playing on different instruments.

At night, the female relations of the husband and some women invited by them come with flambeaus and a noisy band of music to the house of the  
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young lady, in order to take her to that of the husband. She goes out accompanied by her female relations and friends : the men do not follow her, but remain at their homes amusing themselves.

Being arrived at the husband's house, she is perfumed and placed on an elevated seat, prepared on purpose for her. All the women not belonging to the family go out a moment after, and there no longer remain any but the female relations of the contracted couple.

The bridegroom, during this time, is in another apartment, where his relations and some young men whom he has invited, perfume him, dress him in his richest clothes, and sing songs analogous to the ceremony.

A moment after, all the men, accompanied by their music, fall forth in order to proceed to the mosque. They say their prayers with the greatest composure, after which they come to the door of the husband's house, where he enters, accompanied only by his relations. While the husband is at the mosque, the bride is brought into the apartments that are intended for her. On returning from the mosque, the father of the husband, or any other relation the most advanced in years, leads by the hand the husband to his wife, presents him to her, and retires. There remains no one but the midwife or a female relation who serves up a supper to the husband, while the wife continues standing before him, in a very humble attitude. After supper, the latter presents to her husband a basin, water, and a towel, in order that he may wash and wipe himself: she then gives him a pipe and coffee, after which she herself sups. When she has supped, the midwife withdraws, and the married couple remain by themselves.

The next morning, the husband goes into another apartment, and, as soon as his back is turned, one of his female relations comes and spreads on the

the door of the room the drawers which the wife has worn during the night.

All the women present the preceding evening, more richly dressed, come to pay their compliments and give themselves up the whole day to joy. They must see the marks of virginity of the bride; the midwife must shew them the drawers stained with blood; after this ceremony, she folds them up, carefully puts them by, and deposits them in the hands of the mother of the bride or her nearest female relation.

The bride is to be that day in a modest attitude; she is to observe silence, keep her eyes cast down and remain quiet on the sofa, while all the women around her are abandoning themselves to joy.

The second manner of a man marrying one or several wives, distinguished by the name of *kapin*, consists in his presenting himself before the *cadi*, and binding himself to feed and maintain till a certain period, such a woman whom he designates and whose consent he has obtained: which is attested by her father or her nearest relation, and two witnesses; to take care of the children that she shall bear and to give up to her besides, at the time of repudiation or at the expiration of the term agreed on, a sum of money or clothes, effects and property stipulated and expressed. The children that proceed from these marriages, enjoy the same rights as the others, and remain at the charge of the father when he has repudiated or put away his wife.

It seldom happens that Mussulmans marry in this manner, because women of a certain rank would never consent to be united to a man on such conditions, and because the latter generally prefers to purchase slaves, rather than marry in the *kapin* manner with Mussulman women born of poor parents.

The traffic for slaves is very expressly prohibited to Jews and Christians, and is allowed only to Mussulmans. The law authorizes the latter to have whatever number of slaves they may desire, and submits them to no sort of formality. The children that they obtain are free, and share, like the others, in the division of their property after their death.

The law prohibits not Mussulmans from marrying a woman of a different religion, provided the parties bind themselves to bring up their children in the religion of the father; but it is expressly forbidden to women, unless the man embraces beforehand the religion of MAHOMET. It punishes with death a Jew or a Christian caught with a Mussulman woman, in a place or in such a manner as to cause the suspicion of a carnal intercourse. He cannot escape but by embracing the Mussulman religion and marrying this woman, if, however, she consent to this, and they both be unrestricted by the ties of wedlock. In the contrary case, the man is carried to execution; the woman escapes a punishment less severe only by declaring that she was forced or taken by surprise, or by denying that any thing improper passed between them.

If the woman be married, her fate depends on the husband: he may carry his revenge so far even as to punish her with death; but frequently the fear of her relations restrains his arm when ready to strike: he then contents himself with repudiating her.

It enters not into our plan to examine what were the motives which determined MAHOMET to allow four wives to the followers of his religion, independently of such a number of concubines as they could support. Has he wished to please one sex at the expense of the other? Has he thought by this means to obtain a greater population? In short, has he wished to sanction a custom which exists in ARABIA from time immemorial?

Polygamy offers inconveniences without number and so striking, that every one must be astonished that legislators should have permitted or tolerated it. The first of these inconveniences, and the greatest no doubt, is that it is prejudicial to the population of a State; it is that it favours pederasty; it is that several women cannot quietly share among them the pleasures, too seldom occurring, which the husband distributes to them: mistrust, jealousy, hatred, quarrels, must necessarily establish their empire in a harem and thence banish true pleasure.

It should seem, on the first view of the subject, that polygamy is favourable to population, for though the physical faculties of man are limited, he can, nevertheless, in a rather short space of time fecundify several women, and obtain a great number of children during the course of his life.

But as the number of women is nearly equal to that of men, it can only be at the expense of the poor that the rich take several of them: a man cannot have four wives, without three others being deprived of them; and, indeed, it will not be presumed that four women, shut up in a harem with a single man, sometimes old and infirm, can have the same number of children as when those women have each a husband, whose favours they alone enjoy.

The harems, it is true, are scarcely filled with any but foreign females, Georgian, Circassian, and Ethiopian slaves brought annually in the way of trade; but it brings also a greater number of male slaves; which must induce the supposition that, in general, the number of the men in TURKEY, is at least as great as that of the women. But what proves that polygamy is prejudicial to the population of that empire, is that, notwithstanding this great number of slaves of both sexes who come from European countries, from ASIA, and from AFRICA, the empire is becoming considerably depopulated, though there are no instances of emigration on the part of the Mussulmans; though.

though, for a long time past, wars there are by no means frequent and by no means destructive. The population of the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, on the contrary, is kept up, notwithstanding their emigration and the tyranny of the Turks in regard to them: but the former, as is well known, marry but one wife, and it is very expressly forbidden to them to have slaves and concubines; which is the reason that they marry early in life, and that few among them remain bachelors.

The state of inability in which a man finds himself to satisfy the desires of a great number of women, has suggested the idea of bolts, harems, and those unfortunate beings appointed to take care of them, deprived of the faculty of reproducing themselves. Jealousy, frequently atrocious, has caused adultery to be punished with death; and the government has thought itself bound, not only strictly to oppose libertinism by separating the two sexes, but also to deal very severely with girls or women convicted of amorous intrigues. This severity in regard to morals, this separation of the two sexes, and above all the total privation of women experienced by a great number of individuals, has introduced in the EAST a passion for boys, a passion reprobated by the philosopher, held in abhorrence by the legislator, and far more immoral, far more infamous than the illegal intercourse of the two sexes, from which, besides, there results no advantage to society.

Through an inconsistency worthy of remark, the law, which always lays under contribution, which sometimes punishes with death the man who gives way to a natural inclination, who obeys the imperious voice of Nature, tolerates however, and seems to permit a vice which bespeaks a total depravity of morals. The Mussulmans, very austere in other respects, give themselves up without shame to the taste which misleads them, and the habit of which they have contracted in the early part of their life. Very far from blushing at this vice, they make it serve for the gratification of their vanity, and shew  
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with pride the object of their affections. This passion is become so strong among them, that they endeavour to satisfy it by every possible means, and very frequently employ violence. Among other instances, one occurred at SMYRNA, where a European sailor, upwards of sixty years of age, was killed and violated by three janizaries, without there being a possibility of obtaining their just punishment.

Prostitutes are neither allowed nor tolerated: the government sometimes deals very rigorously with those who are of the Mussulman religion. It is not uncommon for some of them to be laid hold of during the night, and, after they have been tied up in a sack with some stones, for them to be thrown alive into the sea, towards the point of the seraglio; and yet one frequently meets in the streets of CONSTANTINOPLE Greek youths, dressed in an effeminate manner, announcing by their carriage that they are ready to abandon themselves to whoever will pay them.

Notwithstanding the customs of the country, these youths preserve their hair, take the greatest care of it, wash it every day, perfume it with musk, amber, and essence of roses, and adorn it with the flowers of the season. An artificial red colours their cheeks, an ebony black is placed on their eye-brows and eye-lids, in order to animate their eyes and form a contrast with the fairness of their complexion. To all the natural charms of the body, they generally join those of the mind, and not unfrequently they borrow the attractions of music and dancing.

Although the law allows Mussulmans to have four wives, yet few among them have more than one, because they lead to considerable expense; because, shut up in the same harem, they cannot live together in harmony; they perplex the husband with their complaints, or plague him with their pretensions. Besides, almost every woman, on her marriage, requires an obli-

tion from the husband, not to wed another in her life-time or as long as she shall not have been separated by a divorce. But she cannot prevent him from purchasing white or black slaves, according to his taste and his means; and provided he lie with his wife once a week, according to the obligation which MAHOMET has imposed on every Mussulman still young and in good health; provided he furnish her wherewith to clothe and maintain herself according to her condition, and to go to the bath when she has been polluted by him or by the indispositions natural to her sex, she cannot sue for a divorce. But what is, perhaps, more grievous, she neither is justified in complaining that the husband is frequently parsimonious of a pleasure which she claims, and of which he is prodigal towards some Georgian or Circassian male slave.

But if he wished to require from his wife the same indulgences that he is accustomed to obtain from his male slaves, she is authorized to present herself before the cadi, in order to demand of him the punishment of the husband and even a divorce; this the judge grants if she be seconded by her relations, and if, besides, the reputation of the husband give to the complaint an air of truth; and, in order to spare this woman the shame of declaring such a circumstance in presence of the whole tribunal, she is to have recourse to a sign agreed on, and confine herself to turning over her slippers.

In no case, can the husband require any thing from the slaves that belong to the wife: he has a right only over those that he himself has purchased. It very seldom happens that he forgets himself in this respect, because the wife would not fail to prefer her complaint and cause him to be punished.

When a man wishes that peace and happiness should dwell under his roof, he confines himself solely to his wife; or if he take any liberty in regard to the

female slaves that he has purchased to wait on her, he recommends to them to preserve towards her the greatest respect and submission. He endeavours to persuade them that she is ignorant of the love which he has for them; and the wife, on her side, wishing to preserve peace in the family, pretends to be ignorant of the infidelity of the husband, and submits with less pain to the privation to which he condemns her, being indemnified by the empire which she continues to exercise over her slaves.

But when a Turk marries several wives who have all the same rights and the same pretensions, it is very rare that preferences do not lead to jealousies and quarrels; it is very rare that they see with coolness one of themselves receive more frequently marks of attachment, without giving vent to their complaints. And however impartial the husband may be in the distribution of his favours, they all will tax him with injustice, all will believe or pretend to believe their rivals more fortunate, and the husband more eager to please them.

It is much worse if disgust keep him at a distance from his wives, and lead him entirely towards his female slaves; and if the latter, abusing the weakness of the husband, take advantage and grow proud of the favours which they receive; if they appear less submissive and less respectful, then peace cannot be re-established but by the dismissal of these inconsiderate slaves and the sincere return of the husband towards the wives.

From this arrangement of Turkish families, it is seen that the wife has an eye on the female slaves, because she would be very glad to find them in fault in order to set the husband against them; and the slave who shares the bed of the husband, is the most dangerous Argus for the wife: the latter never goes out without being accompanied by the other; which renders infidelity rather uncommon.

Some women, in the indigent class of the people, give themselves up to men with tolerable facility for money, and in spite of the severity of the government. Among the rich, there are in TURKEY, as in EUROPE, amorous intrigues: but in a country where a woman seldom goes out, where she is surrounded by the female relations of the husband and by female slaves interested in watching her, it is evident that these intrigues present an infinite number of difficulties to be surmounted, and obstacles to be overcome, which render them less common. Almost always the woman makes the first advances; does she perceive a good-looking man, a man who pleases her, she sets a matron to work, and informs herself of every thing that can interest her. Is she certain that the man answers her passion? A party is arranged; she goes out with her usual retinue, and proceeds to the house of a female relation or friend, or to that of some female slave made free and married: thence she repairs, under various pretexts, to the house of another female slave, or to that of some Jewess, sometimes to a third, alone or accompanied by some trusty person. There it is that the man has been introduced, frequently disguised as a woman. Parties are in this manner renewed as often as circumstances may permit, without incurring too much danger. Advantage is taken of the husband's absence or of the moment of prayer at the mosque. When the woman is sure of her slaves, which is very seldom the case, she can introduce a man into the harem; but woe be to those who are discovered, almost always death ensues.

The bath may also serve as a place of rendezvous, when with money a man may rely on the discretion of the persons who have charge of them, and when he is certain of not being disturbed by them.

There are in CONSTANTINOPLE and in the great cities, Jewesses and Armenian women who carry into the harems valuable stuffs, jewels, perfumes, baubles, and comfits to be purchased; the greater part of them are skilful  
matrons,

matrons, through whose hands pass all amorous intrigues. Every one knows that love watched or laid under constraint is inventive, and that it very frequently finds means to conceal itself from the vigilance of keepers. As no secret conversations can be held without exciting suspicion, and as the Turkish women seldom can write, these matrons keep up correspondences by the arrangement of the flowers of a nosegay, by the disposition of different colours, or of any other sign agreed on.

It is above all in SYRIA and in EGYPT that the art of expressing ideas by means of flowers is carried to such a pitch, that the most active correspondence may take place between two lovers, without awakening the attention of jealousy, without attracting the looks of overseers.

The influence which Turkish women have over public affairs, in the nomination of the agents of the government, and in the distribution of favours and punishments, is much more considerable than might be presumed, from their retired manner of living. The harems are the places of rendezvous inaccessible to men \*, where the most interesting anecdotes of the town and of the provinces pass successively in review, where the most curious news are spread, where plots and conspiracies are framed. Women of every age and every rank come thither to solicit graces and favours for their husbands or their relations, or in order to complain of a husband too jealous, too severe, and demand protection against him, or against some person of weight. An affair often passes through the channel of several women before it arrives at its destination: an emancipated female slave, or woman of the lowest class of the

\* The husband never enters his wife's apartment when she is with female strangers. This custom is very scrupulously observed.

people, sometimes obtains through her patronesses such an interest, that her protection is sought after from all quarters.

The Mussulman women support each other, and are always ready to make a common cause. They are implacable in their resentment, and seldom fail to revenge themselves for an outrage or an offence at all serious. Their influence is increased by that which a favourite slave or the Sultana-Validai generally obtains over the sultan.

CHAPTER XII.

*Of the Georgian and Circassian women.—Of slavery.—We enter the market of female slaves.—Custom of the women in regard to suckling and sterility.—Of the harems and baths.*

THROUGHOUT the EAST much is said in praise of the beauty of the Georgian and Circassian women, slaves brought to CONSTANTINOPLE, and there sold, while young, and thence scattered all over TURKEY, in order to serve in the harems or produce children to their masters. These women, from the account which has been given us of them by the female christians of the country who frequent them, and from the small number of those whom the practice of physic has afforded us an opportunity to see, have European features : almost all are fair with dark hair ; some have flaxen or light brown hair ; all are finely proportioned when they are young ; but they generally acquire, through repose, good living, and the frequent use of baths, an embonpoint which constitutes the delight of the Turks, and which, nevertheless, exceeds the limits of beautiful proportion.

The Turks have nearly the same ideas of the beauty of women, as the Europeans, except that, in general, they prefer the fair with dark hair, and those with light brown to the flaxen, and excessive embonpoint to thinness : it may even be said that women in good health and plump please them much better than those whose shape is slender, whose person and limbs are pliant, and not very fleshy.

One must not be surpris'd that these women are, in general, very well made, since they are the choice of all that is most beautiful among those that are sold in the Turkish markets, by the parents themselves. But what must excite astonishment, is that avarice should overcome religious prejudices; that a father and mother, at the sight of gold, should shut their heart to tenderness and to the sweetest affections; that they should abandon and give up without remorse a child, to be brought up in a different religion and serve for the pleasures of whoever will purchase her. And the christian priests of that country endure and permit this infamous traffic for a few prayers and some alms, so true it is, according to them, *that there is a way of accommodating matters with heaven.*

The price of these slaves, in the markets of CONSTANTINOPLE, varies like that of all merchandize, and is regulated according to their number and that of the purchasers. They commonly cost from 500 to 1000 piastres, that is from 1000 to 2000 livres. But a female slave of a rare beauty amounts to an excessive price without there being a necessity for exposing her to sale, because most of the rich men are always ready to make pecuniary sacrifices in order to procure such for themselves. The men in place and the ambitious are likewise eager to purchase them in order to lay them at the feet of their sovereign or present them to their protectors, and place about them women who, being indebted to them for their elevation, may endeavour through gratitude to contribute to that of their former masters.

In no case does a female slave shew herself naked to him who wishes to purchase her: this is contrary to Ottoman decorum and manners; but when she is marriageable, it frequently happens that the purchaser sends a matron of his acquaintance to examine her, and ascertain whether she be a virgin.

A person would have a false idea of slavery among the Turks and the Persians, were he to judge of it from that which the Europeans have established in their colonies, and above all from the accounts of the unfortunate captives of the coast of BARBARY, who have been made to undergo harsh treatment, and been tormented, in a thousand ways in order to oblige them to embrace the Mussulman religion. In TURKEY and in PERSIA, slaves of both sexes, commonly purchased before the age or the period of puberty, are brought up in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the same kindness and almost with the same respect as the sons of the family. It seldom happens that a Turk sells again a slave with whom he is dissatisfied; he contents himself with threatening him and even with punishing him as he would punish a son. After a servitude more or less long, according as this Mussulman is a more or less exact observer of the precepts of MAHOMET, who fixes the period of slavery to nine years, he gives him his liberty, and marries him: almost always, at his death, his slaves become free, whether he may have been able to dictate his will, or because the heirs consider it their duty to follow his intention in this respect.

When a master is a man of weight and attaches himself to any of his slaves, he neglects nothing for their education and advancement. For that purpose he employs his interest and his fortune, as he would do in regard to his own son; and it must be confessed that, in general, these slaves are more attached to their masters and serve them better, whether in their houses, or in battle, than their servants.

No one is ignorant, that, in TURKEY, the art of pleasing a master, intelligence, boldness, and lastly money, lead to every thing, and carry a man rapidly to the first employments. Most of the pachas and great men of the empire, raised by fortune and intrigue, from the rank of slave or of simple private person to that which they occupy, are for all the Turks a spur ever

active which animates and encourages them. In all administrative and military places, talents are held in no estimation; they are almost always useless, and even frequently dangerous.

The prejudices of EUROPE, in regard to birth, not being known in the LEVANT, most of the Turks marry, without difficulty, their slaves, or give them in marriage to their sons. In like manner they give, without repugnance, their daughters in marriage to the male slaves with whom they are pleased; they grant them their freedom and procure them commissions, employments, or give them money to undertake a trade or exercise a profession.

The prisoners whom the fate of war throws into the hands of the Turks, if they be not exchanged immediately after the battle, which is very seldom the case, or if they be not massacred, which more frequently happens, are slaves, and belong to those who have taken them. They are sometimes carried to a considerable distance from the theatre of war, and there sold, in order that they may not make their escape, nor be exchanged. Those slaves, of more advanced age than the others, frequently refuse to renounce their religion; which is the reason that they do not then enjoy the same advantages as the Mussulman slaves, and that they are treated with less kindness. They are employed in the roughest and most degrading labours, and cannot hope to be set at liberty but by paying a ransom; which to them is almost always impossible, for they seldom have the means of communicating their situation to their family, and if they were sufficiently industrious to earn a little money, and economical enough to keep it, they would infallibly be stripped by their masters or by the other slaves, because a Mussulman thinks himself not bound to observe, in regard to a Christian or a Jew, an honest line of conduct in which he would be ashamed to fail towards a man of his own religion.

We have said that the traffic for slaves was forbidden to the Jews and Christians who inhabit *TURKEY*. No one is suffered to enter the bazar where women are exposed to sale, but Mussulmans who present themselves to purchase them. Europeans cannot be introduced there without a firman of the sultan, which is granted only to the ambassadors and agents of foreign powers, when they are on the eve of quitting the Ottoman Empire. A few days before our departure we with pleasure availed ourselves of the firman which Citizen *CARRA SAINT CYR* obtained, in order to satisfy our curiosity in that respect. In company with him we saw the monuments escaped from barbarism, time, and fire, the principal mosques, the mad-houses, the menagerie, and the market for female slaves. But whether the traders, apprized of our arrival, had made them retire, or whether this was not the season when they are most numerous, we found few slaves in the bazar, and among those that we saw, the greater part were veiled and shut up in their rooms; so that we could not see them but for a moment through a window which was by the side of the door.

We stopped to contemplate three of them who struck us by their beauty and the tears which they shed. They were tall, well made, and scarcely fifteen years of age; one of them, with her head and left arm resting against the wall, vented sobs which wrung us to the heart. Nothing could divert her from her profound grief: her companions, leaning the one against the other, were holding each other by the hand while we surveyed them. They cast on us looks which, doubtless, expressed their regret at having lost their liberty, at being torn from the arms of a too cruel father and mother; at having been separated, perhaps, from those with whom love and hymen were to unite their fate.

The traders, imbued with ridiculous prejudices, fear the mischievous look of Christians and Europeans: a woman cannot be seen by them without

being depreciated, without running the risk of being affected by their malignant influence. Besides, these female slaves, still christians, may according to these traders, fall suddenly in love with a man of their own religion, and attempt to make their escape. They likewise fear that the too great affliction into which the slaves are plunged by every thing that recalls to their mind recollections extremely dear, may occasion them to fall sick or bring on a melancholy that may affect their health.

The building has nothing remarkable, and does not correspond with the beauty of the caravansaries, which it resembles in point of form and construction, nor to that of most of the bazars of the capital. You see a suite of small naked chambers, which receive the light only by a door and a little grated window, placed on one side. It is into one of these rooms that the unfortunate creatures who belong to the same trader are crowded: there it is that each waits till fate throws her into the hands of a man young or old, robust or infirm, mild or passionate, good or bad, in order that she may become his wife or his concubine, or wait on the women of his harem.

The negresses whom commerce draws annually from ETHIOPIA and NUBIA, are brought up, as well as the white female slaves, in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the same kindness as the others; but being more particularly intended for the service of the harems, it seldom happens that they share the bed of their master. After a few years' service, the greater part of them are married to white slaves. Being both at liberty, to the husband is given wherewith to set up a little shop, or exercise a profession which may provide for their maintenance. Frequently they are kept in the house without being liberated, the wife serves, in case of necessity, as a wet-nurse to the children of her mistress, and continues her service in the harem: the husband remains about the person of his master, and performs the same service as before;

he follows him in his walks, in his expeditions, and in the journies which his trade renders necessary.

As for the negroes, more unfortunate, perhaps, than those of the WEST-INDIA colonies, mutilated early in life, they are almost all employed in the care of the women of the sultan and of those belonging to the great men of the empire. True it is that some of them obtain a distinguished rank, extensive power, and considerable riches ; but can they be happy, when they know that the method of pleasing their master, is to displease the women intrusted to their charge ? Can they be happy, when they are obliged to live with women quite young, quite beautiful, from whom they never obtain a look of good-will, and whose aspect incessantly reminds them of the idea of their impotence and nullity ?

In the EAST, the women have not yet suspected that the method to preserve longer their bloom, and enjoy without interruption the fascinating pleasures of society, was to withdraw themselves from duties the most sacred, by delivering into the hands of a hireling the precious pledges of their marriage. They find the caresses of the infant that they nourish with their milk, far more sweet, far more agreeable than the smile of a perfidious and corrupt world. If their mode of life is more simple, less tumultuous, if their pleasures are less lively, less striking, they are amply indemnified by the calm of the senses, by the peace of mind, and by the health which they preserve, and by that which they transmit to their children. In the EAST, they are scarcely acquainted with that multitude of disorders occasioned by the dispersion of milk, those lacteous indurations and secretions which afflict so many European women, and carry them off in the flower of their age.

If through any extraordinary cause a woman lose her milk, and find herself obliged to have recourse to a strange nurse, she receives her into her  
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house, and causes her to be treated with the same respect and the same attention that she herself receives. Whether Mussulman or Christian, it depends on this foster-mother no longer to abandon the infant that she has fed with her milk, to continue towards it her maternal care, and to receive all her life, from it or from its parents, marks of the most lively gratitude: it depends on her, in a word, to be incorporated in the family, and to be there considered and respected as a second mother.

Through a luxury advantageous to the indigent, from which, besides, no inconvenience results, most of the opulent mothers, in the intention of preserving their embonpoint, of reposing more quietly during the night, and of giving a more abundant nourishment to their children, place about them a second nurse charged with the most laborious functions, to suckle them during the night, to amuse them, and divert their attention during the day: but the mother does not, on that account, think herself exempted from watching over the health of her child, from feeding it with her milk, from providing for all the wants that it appears to have, and from bestowing on it all the care that its age and weakness require.

Throughout the EAST, sterility of women is considered as one of the greatest misfortunes that can happen to them; independently of a barren woman not obtaining the consideration which she would have enjoyed as mother of a family, she finds herself almost always neglected by her husband; she sees him pass into the arms of another woman; she is obliged to subscribe to the divorce which he demands, and, to complete her misfortunes, she can scarcely ever, in such a case, find a second husband. Besides, sterility presents with it the idea of an imperfection in the organs, which humiliates her who is the object of it.

When the signs of pregnancy do not manifest themselves a few months after marriage, the wife, in her impatience never fails to address herself to matrons and to physicians, in order to ask them for some beverage, some particular recipe that may facilitate and hasten the moment of conception. The former prepare pessaries in which are contained the hottest and most irritating substances, such as musk, amber, bezoar, aloes, cardamom, ginger, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, &c. They at the same time cause most of these drugs to be taken as an opiate or mixed with aliments, at the risk of producing some inflammation or some other disorder more or less dangerous.

Unless the number of children be already considerable, or the fortune of the husband be deranged, if the wife, still young, after one or more lyings-in, find too great an interval before she be pregnant, she has recourse to the same means, and she employs the same drugs. The Greek women, besides, less devout and more superstitious than the Mussulman females, make offerings to the *Panayia* \*, send a wax-taper to the church, cause masses to be said, and invoke the male and female saints of paradise in whom they have most confidence.

The houses of the Mussulmans are disposed in such a manner that the lodging of the women is always separated from that of the men : the former is called *barem*, or sacred place, and the latter *selamluk*, or habitation of the man. At the houses of the great, there are two piles of building which communicate with each other by intermediate apartments, of which the husband alone has the keys. Access to the harem is strictly forbidden to men ; the male servants and slaves never enter it ; and the male relations themselves are never admitted, except it be on the two grand festivals of the year, and on the occasion of weddings, lyings-in, or circumcision.

\* Παρνακη, all holy ; thus it is that the Greeks call the mother of Christ.

Commonly the harem has no windows towards the street, or if there be any, they are lofty, and grated in such a manner that one cannot see from without what is passing within. In the countries where every house has its terrace or flat roof, there are walls of separation which cannot be passed, and which prevent all communication.

We frequently experienced difficulties in the course of our travels, when we wished to ascend to elevated places in order to have a view of a town and judge of its extent, because the inhabitants were afraid that our object was to observe the women who were walking in their gardens, or taking the air on the terrace of their houses. It has frequently happened, on these occasions, that Turks have fired musket-shots at Europeans whose intentions appeared to them suspicious.

The wife of a certain rank, when young, goes very little from home, because it is not fashionable for her to appear in the streets although veiled, because the law exempts her from going to the mosque, because she has in her own house baths which she uses at pleasure, and because she is surrounded by female slaves who watch over her, and female relatives who counteract her inclinations. To please her husband, to detain him in the harem as long as his affairs permit, to take care of her children, to occupy herself with her dress, and very little with her family, to pray at the hours prescribed by religion, and to pass a part of the day without doing any thing, another in smoking, drinking coffee, receiving female friends, relations, or women under her protection, such are the duties and pleasures of a Mussulman woman. She seldom can read and scarcely ever write; she has learnt to sew and embroider, prepare comfits and dainties, and make sherbet; but she finds it more pleasant to do nothing, to remain quiet on her sofa, and roll between her fingers a chaplet of coral or agate. She considers it as a delightful enjoyment to hold from time to time a dish of coffee in one hand, a pipe in the other, and

to carry them alternately to her mouth, at the same time inhaling the vapour of the one, and retaining as long as possible that of the other ; what afterwards gratifies her the most, is to have it in her power to display to the eyes of the women whom she receives, some rich trinkets and a robe of great value.

A Mussulman is very poor if he have not several slaves to wait on his wife, and the latter is very unskilful if she do not soon convert into dresses and trinkets the greatest part of the husband's fortune. This extraordinary and preposterous conduct, especially in the mother of a family, appears to me to arise naturally from the laws and customs established in TURKEY. It is well known that the sovereign has the right to confiscate, to the benefit of the imperial treasury, the inheritance of the agents that he has employed, and that, in this case, the property of the wife is always respected. Besides, when a divorce takes place between a married couple, the wife keeps her jewels and her wardrobe, independently of the other effects stipulated in the contract of marriage.

The wife takes her meals alone, or with the mother and the female relations of the husband, who are with her in the harem. He eats with his father and the male relations who live with him, and when he is alone or causes himself to be served in the harem, which frequently happens, even the wife does not eat with him ; she waits on him, or sees that the slaves are attentive in waiting on him. The meal being finished, the hands and mouth washed and wiped, she herself presents him the pipe and coffee.

When there are several wives, each has her household, her table, her apartments, and her slaves in the same pile of building. It is very uncommon for a second woman, or slave, to be lodged in another house ; this scarcely happens except among the chiefs of caravans, who, obliged to live half

of the year in one town, and the other half in another, with to have a wife in each of those two towns.

No religious precept is more scrupulously followed; no law is more rigorously executed, in any religion and among any people, than ablutions and washings in TURKEY. Before the five prayers of the day, before and after meals, at every stool, whenever he has been touched by any impure body, the Mussulman must purify himself by partial ablutions. But when he has cohabited with a woman or has experienced a simple pollution, he is submitted to a general washing; and the woman, besides, is obliged to obey this custom after her lying-in and at the end of the indispositions natural to her sex. Thence those ablutions almost continual and those frequent vapour-baths with which no one dispenses, of which all have made themselves a want, and in which both sexes find a delicious charm.

What inclines the women to wish for baths with the most lively eagerness, is that they there make themselves amends for the constraint to which the laws and customs have subjected them. It is at the baths that they meet, and make appointments with each other; there it is that they see each other with familiarity, that they converse without constraint, and give themselves up to the sweetest voluptuousness. There it is that the rich women can display, with the greatest minuteness, their most splendid attire, and their most costly garments. There they are served with pure mocha, exquisite restoratives, and sumptuous collations. There they lavish essences and perfumes; and the entertainment is frequently terminated by music, dances, and the *ombres Chinoises*: but, on those occasions, the bath is shut to the public for the whole day.

The poor women, almost without any expense, there find pleasures less noisy indeed, but perhaps as warmly felt. Common coffee, common sherbet,

no other perfume than tobacco, dainties which they themselves bring, and some fruits of the season : this is to restore the body and gratify the senses. Their vanity is flattered at displaying a fine shift, clean drawers, decent clothes, necklaces, chains, and other ornaments in sequins. In short, they no longer have any thing to wish for when they have undergone complete depilation, when their locks are arranged, their braids plaited, their eyelids and eyebrows painted black, and the nails of their hands and feet of an orange colour yellow.

## CHAPTER XIII.

*Excursion to the fresh waters.—Review of a Turkish army.—Origin of the revolt of Pafwan Oglou.—Historical summary of the events which have taken place to the present day.*

TWO leagues from CONSTANTINOPLE, in ascending the small river which discharges its waters into the head of the harbour, is an agreeable and solitary walk, the only one embellished by art. The sultan goes thither sometimes in summer to spend the day with a numerous suite : frequently Europeans go thither on parties of pleasure, at the same time, however, taking the precaution to have every thing carried that is necessary for them ; for the Turks, not being in the habit of walking, nor of frequenting this spot, have not even thought of establishing there a coffee-house.

On quitting the harbour, you leave behind you CONSTANTINOPLE ; you see on the left the village of AIJUB, where the sultana-mother has just caused a mosque and a sepulchral chapel to be built in order to repose in it after her death : you perceive on the right a Turkish coffee-house, in front of which is a place shaded by fine trees, under which Turkish and Armenian women sometimes seat themselves, to drink coffee, and smoke their pipe. You enter into a fertile valley, confined between two schistose hills, naked and uncultivated ; the river which flows in the middle, is broad, deep, and tranquil at its mouth ; it becomes narrow in proportion as you advance. All the surface of this valley consists of natural meadows, on which herds of oxen graze during the whole year.

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You soon arrive in front of the kiosk of the great equerry *Buyuk-imbrohor*, situated\* on the left bank of the river: you pass under a wooden bridge erected there for communications, and you arrive by the side of the palace of the Grand Signior. Beyond this palace, built with some degree of elegance, the river is received into a broad canal, whence it falls in cascades on steps of white marble: it forms various sheets of water, and afterwards returns to its bed. Some fine trees shade this place, worthy of figuring beside the most beautiful gardens of EUROPE. One only regrets that the two hills which bound the valley, are not cultivated, and adorned with country-houses; they would add to the embellishment of this spot, if they presented, in the form of an amphitheatre, the vine, various fruit-trees, and some fields laid down in corn.

On the 20th of Germinal year VI, (9th of April 1798,) we went with the French legation and different citizens, to see in this valley the filing off of the remainder of the army which sultan SELIM was sending against PASWAN OGLOU, ayam of WIDIN, for a long time past in rebellion against the PORTE. Already had fifteen or twenty thousand Asiatic troops continued their route for ADRIANOPLE, the general rendezvous of the army. There still remained from five to six thousand men encamped at OK-MAÏDAM, who were to file off before the sultan. The captain-pacha, appointed *feraskier* or general of the army, was to be admitted to kiss the feet of his highness, and receive the pelisse of honour. We had a curiosity to see this ceremony, and to learn at the same time the order and disposition of a Turkish army.

At eight o'clock in the morning, we went to embark at TOP-HANA: the day was fine; we enjoyed the sight always more beautiful, always more enchanting, presented, on one side, by the seraglio, and on the other, by GALATA, PERA, and the different villages which are confounded with the forest  
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of cypresses : we ranged along the numerous tiers of merchant-vessels anchored off GALATA ; we saw, as we passed, the arsenal and the ships of the navy ; we counted twenty sail of the line, fourteen or fifteen of which were in good condition, and as many frigates or sloops of war : we stopped for a moment to view LAMBRO's flotilla, which the French frigate the *MODESTE*, commanded by Captain VENEL, had destroyed in 1792. It took us near an hour to arrive at the head of the harbour and enter the river which we have before mentioned.

We quitted our caïques in front of the house of the great equerry. Already were the hills covered with spectators : a part of the sultan's household was arrived, and the pages were exercising themselves in the meadow, in throwing the djerid. The army had advanced towards the declivity of the hill, and was now waiting only for the order of departure. All the colours were displayed, and martial music was heard from time to time.

At ten o'clock, arrived Sultan SELIM in a superb caïque, and placed himself in the kiosk of his equerry : we were within twenty paces of him, under the shade of an ash, on the opposite bank of the river. A moment after, the order was given, and the troops filed off. They descended by the hill of the left bank of the river, passed over a wooden bridge at a little distance from the kiosk, followed the road made at the foot of the hill on the right bank, and went to encamp for three days two leagues from this place, in the environs of a farm known by the name of DAOUT-PACHA.

We saw pass in succession companies of cavalry of *délis*, of *zaïms*, of *timarists*, of *félicitars*, and of *spahis*, armed with a musket, two pistols, and a sabre. After them came a company of horsemen armed with lances : like those who went first, they had their sabre and their pistols. Each company was preceded by one or two colours, and followed by a great number of

*facas*

*facas* or water-carriers. The horses on which these *facas* were mounted, had two large leather-bottles full of water, for the wants of the company.

What had a rather bad effect among this chosen troop, was that the muskets were of different form and calibre: the horsemen were irregularly clothed: many among them were in rags and ill mounted, while some others were better dressed, better mounted, and better armed. The officers were distinguished by the beauty of their horses, by the richness of the trappings, and by the footmen who preceded them.

The company of flying artillery in uniform, tolerably well mounted, having with it forty pieces of cannon, made a more warlike appearance: it was composed of young men strong and vigorous: their look, their skill, and their manœuvres did honour to the French officers who instructed them.

After these we saw pass some other troops of cavalry, and then eighty flags of different colours. There remained all the household of the general, two European carriages, and two litters, when HUSSEIN-pacha appeared on horseback, followed by two bostangees and a tchocadar on foot: he crossed the meadow, and, having arrived within a little distance of the kiosk, he alighted: he was immediately surrounded by the pages of the sultan and conducted to the audience-chamber. He approached his highness, kissed the skirt of his garment, and placed himself at a little distance from him, on his knees, seated on his heels, with his hands on his thighs, concealed by the large sleeves of his robe. All the pages left the hall: there remained only three mutes to wait. The conference lasted half an hour; after which HUSSEIN again kissed the skirt of his highness's robe, and was clothed with a superb pelisse by some pages who entered for that purpose.

HUSSEIN came down from the kiosk, remounted his horse, returned by a semi-circle, and presented himself before the sultan, leant down to the stirrup of the right foot, and went away, accompanied by the three persons with whom he had come.

The troops had halted during this conference; but the military music had not ceased to play: it was composed of trumpets, tymbals, tymbalons, and drums different from those of EUROPE.

The household of the pacha filed off in good order: it was remarkable for the beauty of the horses, the richness of the trappings, and the dress of the horsemen: we saw pass his tchiaoux, his tchocadars, his secretaries and clerks, a troop of galiondgis, and, lastly, his carriages and litters. Three horsemen carried, among the colours, on a sort of pike, three horses' tails which designated his rank. The pacha next made his appearance, followed by the principal officers of his household and by some general officers belonging to his army: a numerous company of sacas closed this march.

We remarked in all the companies, people tolerably well mounted, whose cap of a conical form, was covered on the outside with tin and little bells. We were informed that their function is to gallop into the ranks in order to make the soldiers dress, to excite them to battle, and to stop the runaways.

In EUROPE, people have spoken too variously of PASWAN OGLOU, and have been too little acquainted with the origin of his revolt, for us to pass over in silence the accounts which we have collected respecting him.

OGLOU, in Turkish, signifies son: PASWAN OGLOU, that is, son of PASWAN. The father was ayan or notable of WIDIN: he was rich, and enjoyed great consideration among his fellow citizens. He commanded a troop  
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of volunteers in the last war of the Turks against the Russians and Germans. It is thought that his reputation and above all his riches, induced the grand visir, then seraskier of the army, to cause him to be apprehended, and his head to be cut off.

PASWAN OĞLOU was apprehended with his father, and detained for some time, after which he obtained his liberty and a slender part of the property which he ought to have possessed. He retired to WIDIN, meditating signal vengeance, not only for the death of his father, but also for the injustice committed in regard to himself. It was not long before an opportunity presented itself, and like a man still more able than angry, he found means to derive from events the purpose most suitable to his projects.

Under the reigns of MUSTAPHA III. and ABDUL HAMID, companies of gunners and bombardiers had been formed at CONSTANTINOPLE: some batteries had been erected at the entrance of the HELLESPONT and of the BOSPHORUS: in the arsenal, a school of navigation had been established by the side of that for mathematics; the government turned their thoughts towards the navy, they wished, in a word, to repair the losses occasioned by the successive defeats of the Ottoman armies; but they were very far from having attained that object when SELIM III. ascended the throne. Extremely alive to the loss of the CRIMEA, one of the granaries of CONSTANTINOPLE; painfully affected to see himself threatened in the very heart of the capital, the first movement of SELIM was to give a new impulse to those establishments; his first looks were directed towards the navy; his most ardent wishes were to organize by degrees an army in imitation of that of his enemies; and less jealous of his authority, than of the prosperity of his dominions and of the success of his arms, he created a council composed of twelve persons capable of enlightening and seconding his beneficent views. He at

the same time established an impost the produce of which he appropriated to the new military establishments.

The superiority of the European arms and the inappreciable advantage resulting from tactics, were acknowledged by a few Mussulmans, whom genius and education raised above prejudices; but it was difficult to still the clamours of a great number of persons to whom these projects gave offence: it was difficult to get them adopted by an ignorant people who consider as criminal the innovations which are transmitted them by those whom they call infidels: it was much more difficult, perhaps, to prevent the effect of corruptive gold on the greatest personages of the empire.

The janizaries had lost that ancient energy which had so long rendered them formidable: there was no longer seen among them those boylangees inured to the labours of the earth, capable of braving the inclemency of the seasons; those slaves, those children of tribute, who, neither knowing their parents nor their country, served with enthusiasm and zeal the religion which they had embraced, and the master who paid them. At this day, mutinous and undisciplined, without energy and without courage, more formidable to the authority of the sovereign than to the enemies of the State, to replace them by an intelligent and disciplined standing army, presented incalculable advantages. The sultan, from that moment, would have been less exposed to the agitations and movements of an irritated populace; he would have been incessantly able to dispose of his forces, to carry them to the frontiers in order to repel the enemy, or into the interior to apprehend a rebel, subdue a revolted province, or destroy an army of robbers; he could augment his forces, or reduce them according to the exigencies of the State.

The janizaries, extremely numerous in the capital, although debased, merited, nevertheless, a little respect. An insurrection on their part would have occasioned the miscarriage of the projects wisely conceived: it was prudent to pay them and to make use of them, till the new troops should be organized. As for those of the provinces, scattered over the towns and the country-places, they could offer only a resistance easy to be overcome; however, in order neither to indispose the one nor the other, it was resolved to attack at first none but the yamags: thus it is that are called on the frontier of GERMANY, the new comers or the new companies formed for the garrison of the towns and the duty of the fortresses, in the countries newly conquered.

BELGRADE was, in consequence, the first town where a trial was made to abolish the formidable corps of janizaries; but the yamags revolted, took up arms, and threatened the life of the pacha. The latter succeeded in gaining over the officers and in dispersing a corps of troops too ill organized to be able to resist him for any length of time. The government successively came to the other frontier towns of GERMANY: every where they experienced the same resistance; but every where authority triumphed. At WIDIN, the yamags were more fortunate; PASWAN OGLOU, in his capacity of ayam, which he had recently obtained, marched at their head against the pacha, cut him in pieces, and obliged him to abandon the town.

These first successes gave a great idea of the military talents of PASWAN, and caused him to be considered as a man entirely devoted to the interests of the people. He had no great difficulty in engaging all the inhabitants of WIDIN in his party, and in drawing about him a great number of malcontents, by flattering them, not only with preventing the reforms which the PORTE wished to make, but with opposing the collection of the new tax on provisions, wool, cotton, &c. which SELIM had just established, and the pro-

duce of which he had appropriated, as I have before said, to the expenses rendered necessary by the new corps of gunners, bombardiers, and matrosses, whose number had just been augmented.

What must necessarily have irritated the people, was to see the pacha become *muhaffil* or farmer of the new tax, for his province, in consideration of a pretty considerable sum which he had engaged to remit annually to the PORTE, while before the establishment of this tax, not only the PORTE drew nothing from WIDIN, but sent the money necessary for the pay of the yamags and the repairs of the fortifications.

The revenues of WIDIN not being sufficient for the payment of the army, which was every day increasing, PASWAN sent detachments into the neighbouring provinces, took possession of the money belonging to the imperial treasury, levied taxes, summoned the princes of WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA to furnish him with provisions, military stores, and a sum of money somewhat considerable, under pain of having their country invaded. The latter addressed themselves to the PORTE, which, according to its custom of temporizing and waiting for circumstances, sent them orders privately to yield, for the moment, to necessity.

The Greeks form the major part of the population of European TURKEY: it was of importance to PASWAN to draw them to his party, by conciliating their esteem and inspiring them with the greatest confidence. For this purpose he put in force the ordinances of SOLIMAN I, altered or changed by the sultans his successors; he gave them hopes of alleviating their situation, promised them the free exercise of their religion, and the abolition of that infamous distinction of *rayas*: at the same time he took for his motto, *Liberty and Justice*; magic words, capable of electrifying men the most full of apathy, and of leading to devotedness and enthusiasm a people who groan under the most cruel tyranny.

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The conduct of PASWAN must necessarily have produced the effect which he expected from it. Throughout the whole empire, the janizaries considered him only as a man armed for defending their interests, and opposing the enterprises of the sultan and his council: the Greeks regarded him as their approaching deliverer: all offered up vows for the success of his arms, and in the mean time the PORTE hesitated as to the course which it had to follow. The divan assembled several times for this object, without coming to any determination: a few members, among whom was distinguished the captain-pacha, were of opinion to oppose to PASWAN a force capable of stopping his progress, punishing his audacity, and giving an example of severity which might awe the ambitious who should be tempted to imitate him; but the majority strongly insisted on offering PASWAN his pardon and the restitution of the property; confiscated from his father, if he would lay down his arms and disband, to army.

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When a government resolves to treat with a rebellious subject, it give the measure of its weakness or of its folly. From that time the ambitious conceive the boldest projects, and flatter themselves that their enterprises will be crowned with success. Such was the effect that the proposals of the divan must have produced on PASWAN; but this man was too skilful to irritate the PORTE by a formal refusal, and expose the fate of his army by too precipitate a measure: besides, he wanted to gain time and amass riches for the success of his projects. He did not, perhaps, rely sufficiently on the favourable dispositions of all the janizaries of the empire. He contented himself, for the moment, with demanding that every thing should remain at WIDIN on the ancient footing, that the new tax should not be established there, and that the janizaries should be maintained in their rights. Sultan SELIM acceded to these disgraceful conditions, and sent to WIDIN a pacha provided with a firman to that effect. The pacha was received and installed with the customary ceremonies; but, too weak to struggle against a man who had an

army

army at his command, he was unable to obtain any sort of authority. PASWAN preserved his influence and power, and continued, in the name of the pacha, to govern and administer the town and the province.

PASWAN was too well acquainted with the wily policy of the PORTE, to fall asleep in perfect security : he was persuaded that it would employ sooner or later its ordinary means, steel or poison, in order to get rid of a man who might still perplex it, who had dared to paralyze its measures, and who exercised in WIDIN an illegal authority. He neglected nothing to procure protectors and partisans among the great personages of the capital : he continued to flatter the people and to make them hope for reforms useful and ardently wished for, and anxious to obtain, in the present circumstances, a legitimate power, he warmly solicited the government of WIDIN, together with the dignity of pacha with three tails.

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to Although the PORTE had betrayed great weakness in pardoning a rebellious subject, and subscribing to the conditions which he had dictated, it could never bring itself to grant him the dignity which he requested, and, by that means, contribute to his elevation. It endeavoured to gain time waiting for some fortunate circumstance which might rid it of a man whom it considered as no less dangerous than culpable. It amused him as long as it could, by promises which it was its intention never to make good. It did not conceal from itself that this ambitious man solicited the government of WIDIN only in order to render himself afterwards independent, and to remove a pacha whose presence was irksome to him, and who might, from one moment to another, seize on authority and punish him for his crimes.

When PASWAN perceived that he had nothing to hope for from the PORTE, he again raised the standard of revolt : he drove away the pacha, and recommenced his incursions into the neighbouring provinces.

His generals, more warlike than politic, wished to prevail on him to take possession of WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA, to fortify the principal towns situated on the DANUBE, and thence brave all the efforts of the Ottoman Empire. PASWAN knew the courts of VIENNA and PETERSBURG: he was persuaded that they would favour, that they would even second his enterprises in the interior; but that they would unite, on the contrary, with the PORTE, to prevent him from establishing himself beyond the DANUBE, and forming a state independent of those two principalities.

A more extensive field of glory and prosperity offered itself to PASWAN; this was to march straight to the capital, to seize boldly on the throne, to dispose of the fate of SELIM, to sacrifice his enemies to the maues of his father, and to his own safety; to unite under the same laws, nations separated by religious fanaticism; to give to commerce and industry a new impulse; to give life to agriculture; to create a formidable navy; in short, to fix the government on a solid basis, by giving it that harmony, that general connexion in which it is defective.

Had the boldness of this man equalled his prudence; had his mind been as active as his genius was fertile; had he had, for attack, the talents which he has displayed for defence, it is not to be doubted that the throne of SELIM would have passed into other hands. Already had the janizaries refused to march; already did the immense number of inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE hold out their arms to him whom they considered as their deliverer, as the defender of their rights: the majority of the great were devoted to his interests, and the people, as is well known, always seduced by the prestiges which surround the great man, second his projects without inquiry, and promote without mistrust all his enterprises.

PASWAN hesitated as to the course which he had to follow: the obstacles which he considered appeared to him too great perhaps: he doubted of success; he resolved to wait in WIDIN for all the forces which the PORTE chose to employ against him, persuaded that the soldier would draw up under his colours, or find death at the foot of the walls and in the marshes with which the town is surrounded.

In the mean time, the PORTE, which could no longer conceal from itself the danger arising from this rebel being supported by public opinion, commanded the different pachas of European TURKEY, to collect all the forces which they had at their disposal, in order to go and fight him, force him in his last entrenchments, seize on his person, cut off his head, and send it to CONSTANTINOPLE. It at the same time ordered ALLO, pacha or beyler-bey of GUTAYED, a distinguished warrior, to come and give battle to PASWAN with all the forces of his province. The frontier fortresses of GERMANY were provisioned, and intrusted to pachas or governors on whose fidelity and bravery the government thought that a reliance might be placed.

These different corps of troops, to the number of forty or fifty thousand men, approached the provinces occupied by the generals of PASWAN: they at first obtained some advantages, among others that of surrounding the division commanded by SÉREKCHOL OGLOU, of obliging him to enter VARNA, of cutting him in pieces, and of sending to the PORTE the heads of the general and of his principal officers.

This success, of little importance, was immediately repaired by that which the other generals obtained, on all sides, over the united pachas. BELGRADE, that bulwark of the empire, was threatened; ORSOVA, SILISTRIA, KERSOVA, almost all the towns situated on the DANUBE, were soon in the power of PAS-

WAN, who, from the heart of WIDIN, whence he never issued, directed the march of his warriors, and almost always fixed victory under his colours.

What, no doubt, is very deserving of remark, is that PASWAN's army was not weakened by the different battles which it fought: the number of his soldiers increased according to his wants, while that of the pachas was still more weakened by desertion than by the sword of the enemy. The janizary, as I had before mentioned, regarded PASWAN's cause as his own, and the army of the latter, in whose favour victory declared, better fed and more regularly paid, every day attracted to it a great number of malcontents.

The prince of WALLACHIA, compelled to pay a heavy contribution in money, and to furnish provisions and warlike stores to PASWAN, incurred the disgrace of SELIM. He was deposed, recalled to CONSTANTINOPLE, and replaced by KIHANGERLI, droguman to the captain-pacha, an able, intriguing man, devoured by ambition, strongly suspected of favouring in secret the projects of the natural enemies of the Ottoman Empire, and of holding out his hand to their corrupting gold.

The PORTE, undoubtedly, did not expect that PASWAN, abandoned to his own strength, was in a condition to oppose an army capable of resisting that of the pachas united. It did not imagine above all that he had at his disposal the gold that was necessary for him to maintain it. It was sensibly alarmed at his successes, and very uneasy respecting the fate of BELGRADE, of which the rebel seemed to wish to make himself master. It likewise was afraid that he would cross Mount HÆMUS, and come to establish himself at ADRIANOPLE, whence he might have molested the capital. It took the resolution of displaying against him very considerable forces, in order to finish quickly an unfortunate war which was threatening the empire with a general overthrow, and exhausting unreasonably the finances of the State. In Nivôse, year VI.

(1798), it convoked the principal officers belonging to the janizaries of CONSTANTINOPLE, in order to sound them respecting the intention which it had to march their corps \* against PASWAN. The latter appeared not disposed to second the views of the sultan; they represented that the soldiers said loudly that they would never make war against a Mussulman, who had, according to them, committed no other fault than that of wishing to prevent an attack from being made on their rights, and from there being introduced into the empire of the true believers, the customs of the infidels, enemies of their god and of their prophet.

At one moment it was thought that the janizary-aga would pay with his head the ill-will of the soldiers; but SELIM contented himself with removing him from the capital for a few days, and sending him to GALLIPOLI. He came and resumed his functions, when the government were assured that his removal could not, in any way, change the peaceable dispositions of the janizaries and of their officers.

At the same time an order was dispatched to the pachas and governors of the provinces of the empire, for them to furnish different corps of troops, and cause them to march on the first notice that they should receive. The grand visir, on whom the command of the army had devolved, being old and infirm, SELIM appointed in his place the captain-pacha, as if the zeal and goodwill of his High Admiral could, in this case, make amends for the knowledge and experience which he wanted. HUSSEIN had never been engaged in war, either by sea or by land; how then could he contend, with advantage, against a man who had set at nought the bravery and military talents of the old generals that he had had to combat.

\* The number of janizaries in CONSTANTINOPLE is reckoned to be upwards of fifty thousand.

It is said that it was the very enemies of the captain-pacha who caused him to be appointed *seraskier* of the army, as well to remove him from the capital, as to plan for him an affair of the highest importance, in which they hoped that he would miscarry.

HUSSEIN could not refuse the command of the army without displeasing the sultan, without being taxed with cowardice, without giving a hold to the malignity of the public. He hoped besides, if he obtained imposing forces, to destroy easily a rebel against whom none but half-measures had hitherto been taken, against whom none but inconsiderable forces had been employed. As artful as his enemies were perfidious, he presented himself to SELIM, prostrated himself at his feet, and said to him: " Lord, my life is yours; if " you think me capable of leading your land-forces as I have hitherto led those " of the sea, command: I am ready to obey you; I will march against the " rebel; I will bring you his head, or I will lose my own; but PASWAN's party " is numerous and powerful; his creatures, his friends are spread every " where; they will fetter my operations if I am not invested with great autho- " rity; they will make my enterprises miscarry, if I have not considerable " forces and all the money necessary for insuring the subsistence of the army, " and for detaching, if it be needful, from the rebel party the generals, to " whose talents and courage PASWAN owes the successes which he has obtained " against your arms."

Selim granted all the demands of the pacha, and invested him with great power; he gave orders that all the corps of troops, as well of EUROPE as of ASIA, which could be raised, should join their colours in the early part of the spring; and nothing was spared for the success of this enterprize.

From that time, the greatest activity was exerted, in the construction and equipment of fifteen gun-boats, carrying a 24 or an 18 pounder in the bow, and

and one or two small cannons on each side; they were intended for ascending the DANUBE in order to second by water the attack which was meditated by land against WIDIN. Different craft were equipped for the conveyance of the artillery and stores necessary for the siege, as well as for the provisions for the troops.

ADRIANOPLE was the general rendezvous of the troops of the southern part of TURKEY in EUROPE and of those in ASIA. A part of the former filed off through CONSTANTINOPLE; a part passed through GALLIPOLI. The whole army collected was estimated at one hundred thousand combatants.

HUSSEIN, general in chief, had a corps of from twelve to fifteen thousand Asiatics, and another composed of seven or eight thousand men, topchis, galiondgis, and volunteers, raised in CONSTANTINOPLE and in the environs.

ALLO, pacha of CUTAYED, was at the head of thirty thousand Asiatics, delis, spahis, janizaries, and volunteers.

ALI, pacha of YANINA in ALBANIA, commanded ten or twelve thousand Albanians and five or six thousand janizaries.

MUSTAPHA, pacha of BOSNIA, had a corps of five or six thousand men, as well infantry as cavalry.

ISMAEL, bey of SERES in UPPER MACEDONIA, brought five or six thousand spahis.

Orders were also given for the marching of detachments taken from SALONICA, PHILOPOPOLIS, SOPHIA, and some other towns of European TURKEY.

It was these forces, capable of subduing an empire, that HUSSEIN marched to destroy a rebel, and lay siege to a revolted town.

The Turkish government must naturally have expected that PASWAN, on his side, would neglect nothing for reinforcing his army, and putting it on a respectable footing. They presumed that he would come and wait for the captain-pacha at the defiles of Mount HÆMUS, in order to dispute with him those difficult passes, and attempt to destroy an army which the first obstacles might discourage and put to the rout. They were very much surprised to see him, on the contrary, disband a great part of his troops, abandon the towns of which he had made himself master, and shut himself in WIDIN with twelve thousand chosen men, on whose fidelity and bravery he could rely. He had had time to collect provisions and warlike stores in a quantity sufficiently great to sustain a siege for upwards of two successive years, without putting the inhabitants to too great straits. He had, besides, a flotilla which rendered him master of the course of the DANUBE, and which, in case of need, was to facilitate the re-victualling of the place. This artillery was under the direction of some Polish engineers, who also drew his plans of defence.

The imperial army repaired without obstacle to the vicinity of WIDIN : all the corps of troops were assembled there before the end of Prairial : the flotilla and the gun-boats arrived at the same time ; the provisions and military stores were in great abundance ; the captain-pacha was in want of nothing but men capable of directing a siege, and soldiers better disposed for supporting the cause for which they were going to fight.

After having reconnoitred the environs of the town, after having assigned to the different chiefs the posts which they were to occupy, or having made all the dispositions which he judged necessary for the siege, HUSSEIN summoned PASWAN to lay down his arms, promising him his life, liberty, and a distinguished.

tinguished rank if he would spare Mussulman blood. "In vain wilt thou oppose to me," said he to him, "a momentary resistance; I have a hundred thousand men with me; a hundred thousand others would come to their assistance, were it necessary: acknowledge thy errors; prostrate thyself before the majesty of the imperial throne, and deliver up to me thy town and thy army." PASWAN received the envoy of the pacha on the most lofty terrace of his palace, whence he was observing with a glass the movements of the enemy; and with that disdain which the idea of the superiority of one's strength and talents naturally produces: "Go and tell thy master," replied he, "that it depended on me to have a hundred thousand men to oppose to him; I preferred conquering him with ten."

HUSSEIN having no hope of being able to bring back PASWAN to his duties, resolved to push the siege with the greatest vigour: presently he thought himself in a condition to make a general attack on the town, and, by this means, to make himself master of an island situated on the DANUBE, facing WIDIN; but he was every where repulsed with considerable loss: the town was very well defended; and the island, on which it was of importance to establish himself, had been so fortified that all the efforts of the pacha could make no impression on it: his flotilla was beat off by that of PASWAN, by the fire of the place, and by the batteries of the island. His gun-boats having too imprudently exposed themselves, suffered considerably; some of them sunk and the others were no longer in a situation to second in the sequel the different attacks which took place.

The town, almost entirely surrounded by marshes, was difficult of approach: the works necessary for the success of the siege were ill executed, and worse conceived; forties, made opportunely, destroyed them, or retarded their progress. Already had two general attacks been very unfortunate: a great loss of men had been sustained in the fruitless attempt of the capture of the

island ; the siege was drawing on to a great length ; the season was advancing ; the army was diminishing considerably by sickness, by desertion, and by the fire of the besieged. All these considerations induced the captain-pacha to make a final effort, and employ at once every means that he had remaining.

The army was divided into three corps : ALLO took the command of the first ; ALI, that of the second ; HUSSEIN reserved to himself the third : he ordered the first two to proceed during the night by different roads, to the place assigned for the attack ; but through a mistake, very culpable no doubt, one of the divisions, at the break of day, fired on the other, taking it for an enemy's corps which had sallied from the place : the mistake had been perceived while the battle was still going on, because the general who had stood several discharges, was so incensed with anger, that he ordered the other corps to be fired on, as if it had been one belonging to the enemy. The soldier partook of the indignation of the general, and the battle did not end till the third division had advanced, fallen sword in hand on the combatants, and separated them in spite of themselves. Discontent became so great, misunderstanding was so general, and desertion so considerable, that the captain-pacha thought proper to raise the siege, retire, and wait from time and circumstances for that which his arms had not been able to obtain.

As soon as HUSSEIN had retired, PASWAN recalled the soldiers that he had disbanded ; he a second time made himself master of the places which he had evacuated, and again threatened the north of the empire. After various deliberations of the council, the PORTE determined to offer the rebel whom it could not destroy, his pardon, the government of WIDIN, and the dignity of pacha with three tails ; and as, in these circumstances, despotism required a victim, the prince of WALLACHIA was sacrificed to the resentment of HUSSEIN, and his head brought to CONSTANTINOPLE in Ventôse, year VII. (1799.)

## CHAPTER XIV.

*Position and temperature of Constantinople.—Construction of the houses.—Use of the tandour and of pelisses.—Fires.—Dogs and vultures.*

IF CONSTANTINOPLE leaves scarcely any thing to be wished for as to the natural beauty of its situation and that of its environs, the fertility and the variety of its territory, the extent, the commodiousness, and the safety of its harbour, and the facility with which it is supplied with provisions, it has also the advantage of enjoying a very mild temperature, a beautiful sky, and a very healthful climate. Situated in the latitude of 41 degrees 1 minute north, the heats of summer are there tempered by a north north-east wind which blows regularly from the BLACK SEA during the day; and the cold, in winter, is never excessive, because this same wind, the most cold and most frequent of all, loses much of its sharpness in passing over almost the whole length of that sea.

The winds are variable in winter, and blow from all points; but it seldom happens that the easterly wind does not soon veer to the north-east, and the westerly wind come round to the south-west or south. Rains are frequent, and the sky is almost always cloudy in that season, from the winds which blow from the BLACK SEA, while it is generally serene from those which come from the PROPONTIS and the ARCHIPELAGO. I have, nevertheless, seen it rain indifferently with northerly and southerly winds; but, in the latter case, the clouds are detained and condensed by a north wind which reigns over the BLACK SEA. It is not uncommon, in winter, to have, for fifteen or twenty days successively, with a light southerly wind, a very beautiful sky and a very mild temperature.

The north-west wind blows, in general, only after a heavy rain. The sky is clear during its continuance, and the cold is moderate; but it does not hold long in that quarter: it is sometimes the precursor of the southerly wind, and not unfrequently it shifts to the north and north-east.

It seldom freezes in open day, and the thermometer scarcely ever falls, during the night, more than two or three degrees below the freezing point. There are years when snow is frequent; but generally it melts in falling, and seldom remains several days together, in the environs of the city, without melting and disappearing entirely. It is related, however, that the cold has been sufficiently sharp to freeze the water at the head of the harbour, that the snow has been seen to fall to a foot in depth, and remain unthawed several days; and what is more extraordinary, under CONSTANTINE COPRONYMUS, the BOSPHORUS froze to such a degree that it was crossed on foot: under ARCADIUS, the BLACK SEA remained frozen for twenty days; when the ice broke up, pieces of a considerable size were seen floating before CONSTANTINOPLE.

In the spring, the winds are likewise variable and the cold very moderate; the rains are commonly abundant in Germinal and even in Floréal, and the heats are not felt till Messidor. At the end of Pluviôse, year VI. (1798), the buds of the trees expanded rather quickly; peach and apricot trees had been in flower for some days, and almond-trees already shewed their fruits.

In Messidor, the wind fixes at north, and it seldom happens that, during the three summer months, it blows from the south quarter. The sky is always clear in this season, and rains are extremely uncommon. Vegetation is kept up by the dews, tolerably copious in summer, on account of the vicinity of the two seas, and because the soil, though uncultivated in several places,

is, nevertheless, covered with trees, shrubs, and plants which contribute to the coolness and humidity of the nights. At the end of *Fructidor*, the winds never fail to become again variable, and then it is that the vessels riding in the *HELLESPONT* prepare to ascend the channel, and to take advantage of the first southerly wind.

It sometimes happens in *Messidor*, and more commonly at the beginning, and in the middle of *Fructidor*, that the wind blows for two or three days from the south quarter, and that the heat is sensibly felt. On the 7th, 8th, and 9th of *Fructidor*, (24th, 25th, and 26th of August,) I saw *REAUMUR*'s thermometer rise to 27 degrees, while it is generally, during the strongest heat of the day, only at 23 and 24.

The autumn is generally very fine: it rains for a few days and repeatedly, before and after the equinox, after which the weather is fine, the sky is clear and serene for a fortnight, a month, and even more, and the colds do not begin to be felt till *Nivôse*. *TOTT* has observed that the southerly wind, at the beginning of the autumn, was somewhat cold, because it passed over the snow of Mount *OLYMPUS*. We made the same remark, and we saw that, even in winter, this wind was constantly colder the first day that it blew, than the second and third; but, in general, this wind shifts to the south-south-west, and follows the direction of the Gulf of *SAROS*, and of the *HELLESPONT*. It is known by the modern Greeks under the name of *Lonos*; it is always more mild in winter than the southerly wind, and the sky is always more serene and more clear.

It is not uncommon for the wind to blow from the northern quarter over the *BOSPHORUS* and the *PROPONTIS*, while it blows from the south quarter over the *ARCHIPELAGO* and the *HELLESPONT*. We have frequently been witnesses of it during the stay which we made in the *DARDANELLES*;

and when we returned from EGYPT in Messidor year III. (1795) the south-west wind carried us thrice beyond the point of NAGARA, and thrice we found beyond it the north wind which prevented us from advancing, and obliged us to return to our anchorage. The third time we had a great deal of difficulty to reach a cove, half a league from a village called GALATA, where we remained for three days.

It is in this part of the HELLESPONT comprised between the point of NAGARA and GALLIPOLI, that the south wind, on the one side, and the north wind, on the other, sometimes meet and cease to blow: there is not a seaman who must not have made this remark, and have seen several times, in winter, the sky foggy or stormy towards the BLACK SEA, while it was serene towards the ARCHIPELAGO.

At the end of Nivôse and in Pluviôse, the north wind is sometimes felt in the PROPONTIS, and on the ARCHIPELAGO, with such violence, that vessels which are at sea, run the greatest danger if they do not *bear up* immediately and gain a harbour. We were informed that several European ships which had sailed with fine weather from CONSTANTINOPLE in Nivôse, the year before our arrival in the LEVANT, had been lost in the Sea of MARMORA, and at the entrance of the channel of the DARDANELLES, in foggy weather, and with a sudden and violent north wind accompanied by snow and rain. During the three winter months and in the vernal equinox, prudent and timid navigators do not set sail if the weather be not settled, and they generally pass the night at an anchorage, on the smallest equivocal sign that they perceive. The Turkish and Greek mariners scarcely ever fail, during the six most dangerous months of the year, to run every night into a harbour, and to anchor whenever the wind is too strong, when it is contrary, or when the sky threatens a storm.

The *BLACK SEA*, by the account of the mariners who frequent it, is still more stormy, during the winter, than the *PROFONTIS* and the *ARCHIPELAGO*: the sky then is frequently foggy or covered with clouds, and the harbours there are far from numerous; which is the reason that the Orientals, who almost all navigate without a compass, dare not expose themselves there during three or four months of the year, and that the boldest and least ignorant among them perish there sometimes, because, accustomed not to lose sight of the land, the north, north-east or north-west winds, which blow generally with the greatest strength, dash their vessels \* to pieces on the rocks which skirt the south coast. During the summer, this sea is as free from storms as the *MEDITERRANEAN*, and the weather there is commonly very fine.

Notwithstanding the facility which there would be at *CONSTANTINOPLE* to procure stones, bricks, lime, and every thing that is necessary for building in a solid and durable manner, the houses of the rich, like those of the poor, are constructed with wood. The frame, almost always of oak, rests on a foundation in masonry of no great depth: the interstices left by the wood, are filled up by means of earth kneaded with straw or chopped hemp; the wall is covered with painted planks, rather ill joined: all the floors are of wood, and the roofs are made with hollow tiles, disposed as they are seen in the South of *FRANCE*. The public edifices alone, such as the baths, the caravansaries, and the befestins are built in masonry in a very solid manner.

As for the mosques, constructed on the model of the ancient Greek churches, the greater part are of a tolerably handsome form. The pillars of marble, alabaster, granite, and porphyry are placed with much more taste than is generally displayed by the Turks. The minarets by which they are fur-

\* These vessels, called *saïques*, are constructed in such a manner as not to be able to keep the sea when the wind is too strong. They are obliged to present their stern to the wind, and gain a harbour.

mounted, to the number of one, two, four or six, have an effect very picturesque and very agreeable to the eye.

In a great part of the empire, especially in the countries where the rains are uncommon and the heat excessive, all the houses have, in lieu of a ridged roof, terraces or flat roofs on which the inhabitants sleep in summer: but this custom is not introduced at CONSTANTINOPLE, where the heats are temperate, and the nights cool and damp.

If we except the palaces of the ambassadors and a few merchants' houses, the inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE have no chimnies in the apartments which they occupy: they warm themselves by means of a brazier in copper or baked earth, called *mangal*, which they place within reach of their sofas: but in the houses of some Mussulmans, and in almost all those of the Greeks and Armenians, this brazier is placed under a round or square table, covered with several carpets, one of which, wadded and quilted, in printed calico, hangs down to the floor in every direction, and retains the heat under the table: in this case a little charcoal is put into the brazier, and it is covered with ashes, in order to temper the heat. A stuffed bench, placed all round, allows several persons to sit down, to stretch out their legs towards the mangal, and to receive the heat up to their middle. This table, called *tandour*, appears to have a Greek origin, if we consider that its use is more common among the Greeks than among the Turks, and that it is no longer to be found in the interior of ASIA MINOR, where the colds are more sharp and more piercing than at CONSTANTINOPLE.

Whenever it is a little cold, the women seldom quit their tandour, there it is that they pass their day, that they work, that they receive their female friends, that they cause their meals to be served up. In the evening, it is

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on the tandour that they play at cards\*, at chess, or at draughts. It is round the tandour that they assemble to carry on conversation, communicate the news to each other, listen to some tragical story, some tale of a ghost, or the prowess of some pacha in rebellion against the PORTE.

The Europeans willingly habituate themselves to this custom, because it brings the two sexes together, and because the strict eye of a mother, or the jealous looks of a husband, cannot remark the signs of intelligence nor prevent the expressive touches which the tandour favours. If ever the use of chimnies could be introduced at CONSTANTINOPLE, we are persuaded that the Greek women would oppose it with all their might; and certainly they would find in their persuasive eloquence, good reasons in favour of the gentle, moderate, and more economical heat of the tandour.

In a city where the houses are of wood and ill built, where the windows are numerous and badly shut, where the wind and exterior air come into every room, not only through the doors and windows, but through the walls and partitions, neither the mangal nor the tandour could sufficiently secure the inhabitants from the cold: they require to be warmly clothed: RUSSIA and POLAND afforded them the warmest clothing that man can wear, and the custom of furs was adopted by the inhabitants of the capital, whence it spread in a moment over the most distant provinces. The pelisse is become every where the aliment of luxury, the indication of opulence, the reward of services, a pressing want to all. In countries where the cold is never felt, as in EGYPT and ARABIA, as well as in the most northern cities of TURKEY, such as CONSTANTINOPLE, ADRIANOPLE, and BELGRADE, this custom is general, not only among rich persons and those who enjoy a moderate fortune, but likewise among the indigent.

\* Cards are known only to the Greeks and Armenians who frequent the Europeans.

The rich man wears at the same time two or three furs during the winter; he changes them in all seasons, and, during the summer, he is still seen dressed in the serge of ANGORA, lined with *pelit gris*, or gray squirrel-skin. If the inhabitant of the country-places cannot procure a fine and foreign skin, he at least uses those which fall in his way: the hare, the jackal, the lamb, the sheep, all are acceptable to him; he secures himself from the cold, and he imitates the inhabitants of the cities.

The women have likewise furs of all seasons: the black fox, the sable for winter, the gray squirrel for autumn and spring, the ermine for summer: the greater part have in their closets ten or twelve furred gowns, the dearest of which sometimes exceeds fifteen or twenty thousand livres.

It is not surprising that fires should be frequent in CONSTANTINOPLE, when there is continually fire, during the winter, on wood-floors, within reach of sofas, mats, and carpets. The smallest negligence, children playing, or a few sparks to which no attention has been paid, frequently set on fire those combustible substances; and should a person then happen to be asleep or absent from his house, the fire communicates by degrees from the furniture to the floor; if it be long before it is perceived, it soon breaks out with violence, spreads with rapidity, gains the neighbouring houses, and sometimes even consumes a considerable portion of the city. From the palace of the ambassador and from the elevated places of PERA, we were, more than once, witnesses of the violence of fire, of the quickness with which it spread, and of the terrible effect which it produced.

This sight, beautiful and awful as it is, strikes with horror the man of feeling who wishes to contemplate it, because it presents the image of unfortunate beings who, in those frightful moments, are struggling with death; of those who, seized with terror, are endeavouring to escape with their  
valuable

valuable effects; of those, in short, who are striving, in the midst of the flames, to carry off children or old men that are dear to them.

When a fire breaks out, whether by day, or by night, all the inhabitants of the city are soon warned to have an eye to their own safety, or to give assistance to the unfortunate persons concerning whom they take an interest. The guard of every quarter parades the streets, trailing on the pavement flicks shod with iron, and crying from time to time in a melancholy and mournful voice: "*There's a fire!*" Two enormous drums, placed the one on a lofty tower about the middle of CONSTANTINOPLE, and the other on that of GALATA, likewise apprize the inhabitants of a fire having broken out. In these circumstances, it is the duty of the commander of the janizaries to run immediately with a numerous guard to the place where the fire has been discovered: the grand visir must also repair thither in person, and if the fire be not extinguished immediately, the sultan never fails to come, and to cause money to be distributed in order to excite the pumpers, the porters, the guard, and the passengers, to work with ardour. But when the fire has made some progress, and especially when it is rendered more active by the wind, no hope can be entertained of extinguishing it but by endeavouring to circumscribe it: in order to effect this, the nearest houses which are still untouched are demolished as quickly as possible: the materials are removed before the fire has reached them, and those which cannot be taken away are laid under water.

The damages occasioned by fire are soon repaired: a few days after the conflagration, are seen on all sides houses rising similar to those which the fire has consumed: the imperfections presented by narrow streets, ill laid out, are exactly preserved; nor is any change made in the order and distribution of the apartments. The Mussulman comes thither to resume, if he can, his former occupations, and live there, as before, without regret and without foresight.

Among

Among this ignorant and ferocious people, fire is not unfrequently a mode of expressing their discontent at the dearness of provisions, at the abuse of authority, at a denial of justice, or at the innovations which the government wishes to introduce: of this, history affords us several instances. We shall also relate in another place with some degree of minuteness how the Turks, at SMYRNA, revenged themselves for the assassination of a janizary, by carrying fire and sword into the quarter of the Europeans, and murdering indiscriminately the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews that they met in the streets. The fire at PERA, which took place in the year VII. (1799) is attributed by those who were witnesses of it, to the expedition of the French into EGYPT, and still more to the monstrous alliance of the PORTE with RUSSIA.

From the aspect of that multitude of dogs which are met with in the streets of the capital, from their excessive leanness, and from the hunger which torments them, one would be inclined to imagine that, independently of the plague, of fires, and of the soldiery that desolate this city, madness must be blended to those scourges and cause, in its turn, many ravages among an improvident people: one would be mistaken, for if travellers may be credited, the testimony of the inhabitants, and the opinion of a great number of physicians whom I consulted on this subject, canine madness is totally unknown in the EAST. It appears that this disorder is as foreign to these countries, as the plague is to the part of EUROPE which we inhabit; and I do not imagine that, in any circumstances, either the one or the other can make its appearance spontaneously, whatever may be the state of the atmosphere, the quality and the quantity of the aliments, and the vicinity of infected places: a dog must necessarily be bitten by another dog or by some other animal afflicted by that disorder, for madness to break out in him, as a man must have a communication with pestiferous persons or touch the objects to which they have transmitted their taint, for him to be attacked by the plague. The syphilis offers us an

example more striking of the diseases which cannot be attributed to other causes than to a contact with persons infected. But this is not the place to treat of canine madness: it is sufficient for us to remark that it is unknown in the Ottoman Empire, although the various causes to which physicians attribute it, exist in TURKEY almost all in a degree more eminent than in EUROPE.

In fact, dogs are there more numerous; and as they belong to no one, they there suffer more than in our countries, from hunger and thirst: the climate is much hotter than ours, and the cold is sufficiently sharp at CONSTANTINOPLE, and ADRIANOPLE, for those animals, to whom the entrance of the houses is prohibited, to feel it more, during the night, than those of the northern countries of EUROPE. The former, as is well known, can secure themselves to a certain degree from the inclemency of the seasons, to which the dogs of TURKEY are incessantly exposed:

Although the Mussulmans consider dogs as unclean animals, so much so that they avoid touching them, and prevent them from entering into their houses, yet they suffer them to breed considerably in most towns, because they think that their dung is very fit for the dressing and the dyeing of Morocco leather: one could not even, if we may believe them, supply the place of this substance by another. The advantage which they also derive from those animals, is that they clear the streets of the carrion and other filth which the inhabitants are incessantly throwing there.

The charity of the Turks in regard to them consists in giving them sometimes bread and what they cannot consume, in distributing to them daily the liver, lights, entrails, and head of the sheep which are killed in the slaughter-houses, because they never make use of those aliments proscribed by their religion, and because the christians, following their example, dare

not eat them. Every day are seen in the streets men carrying on a long pole a great number of these livers and lights, in order to sell them at one or two sous to the devout and the rich who may be desirous of regaling with them the dogs of their neighbourhood.

There are persons who cause to be built, near the door of their houses, huts for the purpose of lodging bitches and their young: they carry thither straw, and give them every day bread or meat. It is even said that some have, on their death-bed, left legacies for the support of a certain number of these animals.

The police which the dogs exercise among themselves is very strict: divided into packs more or less numerous, according to the quantity of sustenance which a particular part of the town affords, they always frequent the same streets, assemble round the slaughter-houses and places where they find food, and if they perceive a dog belonging to another quarter, they fall on him, and drive him away, biting him as hard as they can. Ill fed as they are, they, undoubtedly, are afraid to share a scanty meal with a new comer. If it happen that one of them be driven from his pack, he is generally obliged to leave the town and wander about the fields unless he be strong enough to dispute with perseverance a place of refuse, or patient enough to endure for a long time the bites and the crossness of those with which he wishes to associate.

Vultures, kites, and most of the birds of night combine with the dogs to clear the city of its filth: the first mentioned \* arrive in the spring, pass the summer on the minarets, the mosques, and other elevated places, there lay their eggs, and return before the winter into the more southern countries, such as EGYPT, ARABIA, and the interior of AFRICA. During the heat

\* *Vultur pernopterus.*

of the day, they soar to a considerable height, hover for several hours together over the town, and at night come to take their share of the carrion which they have perceived. \*

The kite, the great-eared owl, the long-eared owl, the scops owl, the common owl, the screech owl, and the reddish owl make war on the rats and mice, which are extremely numerous in a city built of wood, where the inhabitants are very neglectful, and where cats are scarce and often dangerous, as they may transmit the plague from one house to another, in the season of their loves.

As for the ordure, the inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE do not commonly give themselves the trouble to have it removed, because they depend in this respect on the rain. This resource is almost always sufficient in autumn, winter, and spring, because the city affords every where a declivity sufficiently great for the waters to wash it away and carry it along with them; and when these means are not sufficient, they throw it into the harbour; which forms, on several parts of the shore, considerable risings.

CHAPTER XV.

*Of the plague.—Curative indications of this disease.*

WHEN there neither exists, near a town, marshes nor other hotbeds of infection ; when the air is incessantly renewed with facility, and carries off the putrid miasmata resulting from a great population ; when the waters are pure and the aliments of a good quality ; when, in a word, the climate is temperate, the inhabitants enjoy, in general, good health, and are exposed only to the complaints common to human nature. All these advantages are united at CONSTANTINOPLE, to such a degree that we should not hesitate to say that this city would be one of the most healthful in the world, if a terrible malady did not there make frequent ravages, and carry off from time to time a part of the inhabitants. In fact, if we except the plague, the cause of which appears foreign to the climate, as we shall presently shew, at CONSTANTINOPLE one is not exposed to local disorders, and strangers who arrive in that city have not to dread the malignant influence of a dangerous and unwholesome climate. But the plague alone takes off more inhabitants than all other disorders together cause to perish, more than war or navigation cause to disappear ; and if this city was not continually repairing, from all points of the empire, the losses which it sustains, it would shortly be no more than one vast solitude.

With their ideas of fatalism, the Turks, persuaded that man cannot change the immutable decrees of the Eternal, consider not only as useless, but even as criminal the precautions which the Europeans take against that destructive scourge, and when death is striking them on all sides, they display a great tranquillity and an entire resignation. Not one of them appears to have any repugnance

pugnance to attend the sick who are dear to them ; neither could he make up his mind to forsake them or give them up, as is done by Europeans in most of the sea-ports of the LEVANT, to hirelings who are accused of hastening too frequently the death of the patient, in order to enjoy sooner his spoils.

Under whatever form death present itself, the sage receives it with serenity : it is not even terrible to the generality of men, except when it is accompanied by acute pains, and when every hope of recovery has fled ; but the courage of the most stoical philosopher would, perhaps, be staggered, if, struck by this cruel disorder, he were witness of the fright which seizes on all those who have had a communication with him ; if he found himself forsaken, abandoned by his nearest relatives, his best friends ; if, in those moments of grief and agony, he could not see and embrace a wife, a child, nor dictate to them his last will ; if he saw himself descending, as it were yet living, into the grave.

Affections the most tender, the closest connexions, almost always among Europeans give way to the fright which this cruel disorder inspires : the wish of our own preservation breaks in a moment the ties of blood, and stifles sentiments the most virtuous. On the first symptoms of a serious illness, the man suspected of having the plague is immediately sent to the *hospice*, situated at the extremity of the street of PERA, solely destined for the treatment of that disorder : there a Maronite friar is charged to receive the patients that are sent, and to cause to be administered to them such assistance as his zeal may suggest.

Gratitude is, undoubtedly, due to the man who has devoted himself to the relief of the infected, who has been able to make up his mind to reside among them and pour into their heart the words of consolation ; but to his good intentions he ought to join the knowledge necessary for the treatment of this disorder, and be able, without exposing himself too much, to afford every assistance which the patients claim, and which humanity requires. Unfortunately,

fortunately, the attentions of this friar are hitherto confined to causing to be given from a distance a few light aliments, a few insignificant drinks, and to presenting himself at the door of each patient in order to administer to him the spiritual succour prescribed by religion.

It would, doubtless, be easy by taking suitable precautions, to establish in this hospice a curative treatment, which might be modified or changed till a fortunate result had been attained. We doubt not that this disorder, however quick and terrible it may be, may sometimes yield to a treatment directed by an able and experienced hand, and that it may, perhaps, be easy to preserve one's self from its contagious effects by never touching the patient or his garments, without immediately dipping one's hands in water, vinegar, or any other liquid ; by fumigating his room from time to time, by making him even sleep in the open air when the season might permit, by taking, in short, the precaution of anointing with oil, butter, or grease, one's hands and the parts of one's body the most exposed to any contact.

When one has resided in the LEVANT and especially at CONSTANTINOPLE, one is convinced that, in ordinary times, this disorder is propagated but slowly ; few individuals are attacked by it at a time ; some get the better of it, and one must have a more intimate communication, a more immediate contact to be afflicted by it, than when it shews itself under an epidemical aspect : in this latter case, it spreads with an astonishing rapidity, is communicated with the greatest facility, and carries off almost all those who are struck by it. The most certain method of guarding against it, is for a person to shut himself up in his house and no longer hold communication with any one ; for it appears demonstrated that the air does not transmit the plague ; but that it is communicated and propagated only by the contact of a sick person, or by objects which he has recently touched ; and what must leave no doubt on this subject, is that there is no instance of the most destructive plague having introduced itself  
among

among the Europeans, when they have insulated themselves, and dipped in water, vinegar, or perfume, all the articles which they drew from without.

This observation which is daily confirmed by experience, no longer permits us to look for the cause of this disease in putrid, malignant, pestilential miasmata emanated from some infectious places, some stagnant waters, &c. still less in the periodical inundation of the NILE, as some authors, on too slight grounds, have advanced. No city is more exposed to the plague than CONSTANTINOPLE; and, nevertheless, as we have before observed, the air there is very wholesome, and neither marshes nor infectious places are to be seen in the environs. In EGYPT, the NILE begins to swell towards the middle of Messidor, and has entirely overflowed its banks at the beginning of Fructidor. In Vendémiaire, the lands which the river has inundated are sown: this would, undoubtedly, be the period of the sudden appearance of the plague if this disorder were occasioned by the putrid exhalations produced by the waters remaining on the lands, and yet it is observed that this disease always ceases in EGYPT in the hottest season of the year, and that it very seldom breaks out in autumn, but more frequently in winter and spring, that is, when the waters spread over the lands have entirely disappeared, and there can no longer be dangerous exhalations. What likewise proves that the periodical inundations of the NILE have no influence on the plague, is that EGYPT is sometimes free from this disorder for several years together.

For this disease to make its appearance in a town, the germ must be brought thither from without. Infectious marshes, vegetable and animal substances in a state of putrefaction, vitiated aliments, and mephitic exhalations will, no doubt, sometimes occasion very serious disorders, and fevers as dangerous as the plague; but those disorders will cease when the cause which has produced them shall disappear: they will not embrace a vast extent of ground; they will be circumscribed to the places which gave them birth.

The plague visits the different countries of the Ottoman Empire, as the small-pox visits the different countries of EUROPE: like the latter, it neither owes its origin to putrid exhalations nor to causes derived from the soil or the climate: it exists in the LEVANT, as it would soon exist in EUROPE, if we took no method of securing ourselves from it, and it might, undoubtedly, be made to cease in the Ottoman Empire, if the Turks were capable of employing the means proper for that purpose. The plague visits TURKEY, and makes its appearance more or less often in a town, according as commerce and communications are more or less frequent: thus it is almost always at CONSTANTINOPLE, because this is the city which communicates the most with all the points of the empire. The plague cannot break out in any town of the provinces without its being soon transmitted to the capital. SMYRNA is the next city where this disorder most frequently makes ravages, because trade there is very brisk, and because the intercourse of that city with almost all those of TURKEY is rather frequent. EGYPT carries on a somewhat considerable trade with CONSTANTINOPLE; and, indeed, it commonly happens that the Turkish ships or the caravels belonging to the Grand Signior bring the plague to ALEXANDRIA, whence it spreads to ROSETTA, DAMIETTA, and CAIRO, and thence into all the villages and even into the habitation of the cultivator.

This cruel malady extends into SYRIA by means of the merchandize which EGYPT furnishes to that country: it comes thither also through SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE; thence it sometimes reaches DAMASCUS, ALIPPO, and MESOPOTAMIA; it is brought into the interior of ASIA MINOR by the caravans from CONSTANTINOPLE and SMYRNA. TURKEY in EUROPE is more exposed to the plague than the distant provinces of ASIA, on account of its vicinity and the connexions which it has with the capital. At DIARBEKIR and at MOSUL, this disease is known but every fifteen, eighteen,

or twenty years ; it is much more rare at BAGDAT and BASSORA, and the Persians are scarcely ever afflicted by it.

This difference is owing, on the one hand, to those towns receiving scarcely any indigenous merchandise from SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, and to the pestilential infection having time to be dissipated in a very long passage across ASIA MINOR, MESOPOTAMIA, or the desert of ARABIA. Besides, it appears certain that a cold somewhat severe, such as is felt in ASIA MINOR, or a great heat like that of EGYPT, of SYRIA or of the desert of ARABIA, is sufficient for smothering entirely the germs of this scourge ; and this, no doubt, is the reason that the plague does not make its appearance two years successively in the countries either too cold or too hot, except on the coasts, where it may be incessantly kept up by commercial communications.

TURKEY not furnishing any merchandise to PERSIA, this disorder can be transmitted thither only by travellers ; but as the germ of this disease is soon developed in persons who have received it, they would be attacked before they had travelled over a space at all considerable. This is the case with BAGDAT and BASSORA : the interior of TURKEY furnishes very few articles of trade to those two cities : some silk stuffs are brought thither from DAMASCUS and ALEPPO, together with some European cloths, very little sugar, cochineal, and indigo, but a great deal of old copper which passes into INDIA, and metals, as is well known, are little susceptible of preserving and transmitting the germs of the plague.

What fortunately contributes to retard the progress of this malady in the LEVANT, is that the Turks are in the habit of freighting from preference European vessels for the conveyance of their merchandise, and our seamen are too well acquainted with the dangers which they have to run not to take

take every precaution that prudence requires. Besides, commercial speculations are almost always suspended or relaxed in a town violently afflicted by this scourge.

Furs of which the Turks make a great use, contribute most to the communication of the plague, either because the fur in which a man has died, serves to clothe or to adorn his nearest relation, or because it is immediately exposed to sale, and purchasers flock from all quarters. It is, besides, proved that this merchandise is the most susceptible of transmitting the plague, and it is commonly from CONSTANTINOPLE that all the chests of peltry are dispatched for the different sea-port towns of the LEVANT. The merchants of ALEXANDRIA have remarked that it is through that channel and through the sick persons that are sometimes on board the Turkish ships arriving from CONSTANTINOPLE, that this disorder breaks out in their town. It seldom happens that it comes thither from SYRIA, because the commodities which that country furnishes to EGYPT through the European vessels, such as tobacco and silk, are by no means susceptible of transmitting it. SMYRNA generally receives it from CONSTANTINOPLE, and sometimes from ALEXANDRIA and SALONICA, through the goods which are brought thither and through the sick who are there landed. The greater part of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO secure themselves from it by not permitting access to vessels arriving from an infested town. May their example one day enlighten the Turks and make them sensible that man may, to a certain point, keep at a distance and retard the calamities which afflict him, and that the plague makes ravages among them, only because they neglect to take against it the precautions that are taken in EUROPE!

Next to peltry, cotton and wool are reputed the articles the most susceptible of transmitting this disorder: paper is infinitely dreaded, and is not received

without great circumspection. In general, rough bodies catch the taint much more easily, and preserve it much longer than smooth ones. On the smallest suspicion of the plague, the merchants no longer admit the persons with whom they carry on business, but in rooms from which every article of stuff furniture has been removed; they entirely shut their houses if the disease make an alarming progress. In the chanceries of the legations, there is a partition erected which strangers cannot pass, and no paper is received there that has not been fumigated, that is, passed through the very warm vapour of an aromatic substance.

When the merchants are shut up, a known purveyor brings daily to their houses the aliments that are bespoke, and deposits them in a great tub full of water, placed at the entrance of the house. Bread alone is excepted: necessity, no doubt, has established the opinion that it is not susceptible of transmitting the taint of the plague except when it is hot, and that there is nothing to be feared in receiving it cold. It is by means of these precautions, incomplete as they are, that the Europeans secure themselves always from this terrible disorder; but it is necessary that they should exercise an active and strict vigilance in regard to servants, that they should prevent them from going out by stealth or introducing any stranger into the house.

I observed, during the stay that I made in the LEVANT, that if the progress of this malady is sometimes extremely rapid, so much so that the sick person sinks under it the second or third day, it frequently happens, especially at CONSTANTINOPLE and at SMYRNA, where the plague is, as it were, endemical, that it shews itself under an aspect less frightful. On certain occasions, some patients abandoned to themselves recover their health by means of one or two buboes which suppurate abundantly. The progress of the disorder being then slow and uniform, and the symptoms being well characterized,

terized, it would be easy to assist efficaciously those infected persons, to establish a methodical treatment, and employ for the physician and the assistants preservative means.

The unction of all the body of a sick person with olive-oil has lately been made known as a very important discovery, and sure means of cure. Unfortunately experience has demonstrated the inutility of this remedy when the disorder has broken out: olive-oil cannot prevent the virus introduced into the inside of the body from making there its usual ravages; but it may, as well as other oils, butter, and grease, act as an excellent preservative, if it be true, as every one asserts, that the butter-men, whose hands and garments are almost always impregnated with that substance, are scarcely ever attacked by the plague.

It is likewise remarked that the facas or water-carriers are much less exposed to this disorder than other labouring men, and that those who wash the body of persons dead of the plague are not attacked by the disease through this operation: whence it would follow that greasy bodies oppose the introduction of the pestilential venom, and that water carries it off with it.

Many persons are in the habit of keeping open one or more issues in order to preserve themselves from this disease, and, what has been attested to me by a great number of physicians, a person is not attacked by the plague during a venereal treatment, in whatever manner mercury be administered.

It would be very interesting to make, in this respect, experiments which might leave no doubt, and which might tranquillize the persons who should be willing to attend the sick; for, till the present time, almost all the European physicians have constantly refused to give their attendance to such patients, notwithstanding the warmest entreaties and the most advantageous promises;

mises; and he to whom the ardent desire of instructing himself or the satisfaction of assisting his fellow-creatures may have dissembled the dangers which result from the treatment of this disorder, has soon found himself the victim of his zeal and humanity. People are obliged to have recourse to Jewish physicians who are led by a blind routine, governed by false prejudices, and incapable of drawing luminous inductions from the facts of which they are every day witnesses. These physicians, however, take the precaution neither to approach the sick person, touch any thing in his house, nor administer themselves the remedies which they prescribe.

Though I have not myself attended the sick attacked by the plague, though I have not had it in my power to apply myself to the practice of that terrible disorder, I have so frequently had an opportunity of conversing, either at CONSTANTINOPLE, or in the other parts of the LÉVANT, with Greek and Jewish physicians, with persons who have seen and attended patients infected with the plague, or had themselves recovered from this disease, that I think I have acquired respecting it notions sufficiently correct. On my third journey to CONSTANTINOPLE, I caused a trial to be made, through the means of a Jewish physician and of Citizen BRUN, naval architect, some remedies which were crowned with success. I invite those who shall be able to surmount the fear of danger, and who shall be willing to renounce all society during the course of their observations, to follow up the experiments which I have begun, to modify and change the treatment till it gives a happy result. No place is more fit for such observations than the hospice of the Franks or that of the Greeks, because the patients are entirely at the disposal of the physician, and the latter might, besides, take with respect to himself every precaution that he should judge proper.

We have said that in the towns where the plague is habitual and as it were endemical, it shewed itself with symptoms less serious than when it

was epidemical; but when some time has elapsed since it appeared in a country, it generally assumes a character of malignity, so much so that almost all the patients who are attacked by it, die at the expiration of two or three days, sometimes of four or five. It announces itself by an oppression of spirits, and a total loss of strength, vomiting, frequently a sharp pain in the stomach, and a pain in the head more or less violent: the sick person complains of an internal, insupportable heat; he does not long preserve his reason; he soon raves, and, by his gestures and his words, he betrays the fright by which his mind is seized. The pulse is hard, scarcely feverish; it afterwards becomes intermittent and irregular: the patient generally dies in convulsions before a bubo has shewn any sign of suppuration, before it has been well able to make its appearance.

When the disorder manifests itself with this degree of malignity, there can be no hope of recovery. The art of curing in these circumstances is always of no avail; but one may combat it with advantage and obtain several cures, either in the decline of the contagion, or in the years when the plague proceeds with more slowness, and shews itself with symptoms less terrible: then the oppression is less great; the vomiting does not announce itself with a pain in the stomach so acute, the pulse is less concentrated, and the fever more perceptible: the patient preserves his reason for some time, or if he rave, it is only by intervals and in a manner less tumultuous. The bubo, in these cases, makes its appearance on the first or second day, and quickly tends to suppuration. This plague, which might be called *mild*, comparatively to the other, is, nevertheless, a disorder also very dangerous, because scarcely one third of the sick recover their health.

When the bubo is in full suppuration, the fever insensibly diminishes, the appetite returns, and the patient by degrees recovers his strength; but if, through any mistake in his regimen, through any excess, or through any  
cause

cause frequently unknown, the suppuration of the bubo cease entirely, or diminish all at once, the patient dies on the second or third day at latest, with another bubo which scarcely shews itself.

Sweats do not appear till the pulse is developed, and the disorder assumes a favourable aspect; this happens commonly on the fourth or fifth day: they give considerable relief, and prevent not the suppuration of the bubo.

Nature indicates that the plague cannot be cured without the sudden appearance and the abundant suppuration of one or more buboes: all the efforts of the physician should therefore tend to provoke, as quickly as possible, this suppuration, by the application of the actual cautery or of a burning iron to the place where the buboes begin to shew themselves: this method is preferable to that of a blister, because it is more expeditious, and one has not to fear the action of the cantharides, which would not fail to increase the internal heat of which the patient constantly complains.

Recourse must quickly be had to an emetic in order to clear the stomach, and to follow likewise the indications which naturally present themselves. Vomiting is one of the first symptoms of the disorder; it scarcely ever fails to take place and to relieve the patient when it is abundant. Tartar emetic is that which appeared to me the most proper and the most safe.

Bleeding cannot be suitable in any case; it is never employed by the physicians of the country; it is even considered as hurtful; it would diminish the strength of the patient, and counteract the eruption and the suppuration of the bubo.

The day after the emetic, I have prescribed, with some success, an infusion of camomile, at the same time adding to every half glass two drops of  
volatile

volatile alkali fluor or of ammoniac, which was given every three hours; and at night half a drachm of diascordium and as much theriaca. In lieu of volatile alkali, I administered to some workmen belonging to the arsenal, concerning whom Citizen BRUN interested himself, twenty grains of flour of sulphur every six hours, in a glass of the same infusion. On the second and third day, from what I afterwards learnt, the physician considerably increased the dose, so much so that it operated as an emetic and cathartic, and excited a copious sweat. The bubo suppurred very well, and these patients perfectly recovered.

It is necessary to purge from time to time when the disorder is prolonged, and the patient begins to grow better, and to keep up his strength by meat broths, and even by a light diet more substantial. In the beginning, on the contrary, nothing but light rice creams, barley water, or gruel should be allowed; the patient must be made to take a ptisan of barley and liquorice root, to which shall be added, according to circumstances, a little nitre.

The treatment established by the people of the country, consists in giving (except to scrupulous Mussulmans) spirituous liquors, such as brandy, in the intention of driving out the venom and provoking the issue of a bubo. The sick person is then made to swallow the urine of one in health, in which the juice of two or three lemons has been squeezed. The expressed juice of parsley is also given; this last is regarded by the Jewish physicians, as one of the best remedies against the plague. They also prescribe opiates into the composition of which enters, among various cordials and tonics, musk, amber, and above all animal bezoar. When the bubo appears, they apply to it a plaster made with the yolk of an egg, and verdigrise or alum reduced to powder.

Garlic, onion, vinegar, and particularly brandy, are considered by the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, as preservatives against the plague. Most

of them keep in their hands some labdanum \*, an aromatic substance which heat softens and renders more odoriferous; they turn it again and again in every way between the fingers, and smell to it from time to time, and especially when they are in fear of any dangerous emanations. Some, in the same view, carry about them -musk, ambergris, or camphire.

No one doubts in the LEVANT, that a person can have the plague several times: the opinion of physicians, on this subject, is perfectly conformable to that of the public; and I have myself seen on several persons the scar of two or three buboes which had saved them as many times. Observation proves every day in TURKEY, that the plague attacks indifferently him who has escaped it one or more times, and him who has never had it; therefore the proposal made by some physicians to inoculate that disorder, as we inoculate the small-pox, is at least ridiculous: it would be far more rational to propose the means of causing it disappear from the Ottoman Empire and from BARBARY, as it is made to disappear from the civilized States of EUROPE.

It has frequently been remarked at CONSTANTINOPLE, that domestic animals were not exempt from the plague. They are, indeed, less susceptible than man of being attacked by it, and it is scarcely but in the years when the disorder shews itself with all its intenseness, that it makes ravages among them. Several intelligent persons assured me that dogs, in every case, escaped in greater number than man from this disease, and that they had, like him, buboes the suppuration of which was more or less abundant.

It would be very important, no doubt, to inquire into the origin of this disease, to observe the nature of its venom, and to explain why, being so con-

\* Labdanum is extracted from a species of rock-rose, and gathered in Greece, in the Islands of the Archipelago, in Crete, and at Cyprus.

tagious, so quick, and so terrible, it is not transmitted by the air, and cannot be communicated without the immediate contact of a sick person, or an object touched by him. It would be interesting to know what are the objects susceptible or not of transmitting this venom, and how long a time it can be preserved; what is the degree of heat or cold that causes it to disappear; what are the substances which can secure one from it, and to what degree they can do so. It would result, perhaps, from these inquiries, that this virus is analogous to that of the itch, of syphilis, of madness, and of all the disorders which, in man and in animals, are only contagious through immediate contact; and then it might be possible to find among the preparations of metals and semi-metals, if not the specific for the plague, at least a remedy that might cure it in several instances.

## CHAPTER XVI.

*Of the ulemas.—Difference between this body and the ministers of religion.—Tribunals of justice.—Of inheritance.*

IN every country on earth, the ministers and interpreters of religion enjoy very great privileges; but in none, without doubt, are the advantages which they derive from their profession so great as in TURKEY. Here they possess the most lucrative employments; they join judicial to religious power; they are at the same time interpreters of religion and judges of all civil and criminal affairs; they are secure from the extortions of the pachas and great men of the empire: they cannot be legally put to death without the consent of their chief: their property, after their decease, passes as a right to their heirs, without the imperial treasury being able to appropriate it to itself. They form, in short, under the name of *ulemas*, a corporation, highly considered, powerful, and formidable sometimes to the throne itself, from their directing almost always public opinion, and from there being, perhaps, no government where public opinion is pronounced with so much strength and success as in TURKEY.

We must not, however, confound these magistrates, these doctors of law with the *imans* who serve the mosques, with the *muezins*, whose employment is to ascend five times a day to the minarets in order to summon the Mussulmans to prayers: the latter are not admitted into the august body of the *ulemas*: they are turned out of office, or if they voluntarily quit their functions, they return into the class of simple private persons. Subject, like the other Turks, to the magistrate of the place who appoints them on the presentation that is made

made to him by the people, the imans are not under the particular inspection nor under the safe-guard of the mufti and the mollas. They may certainly be considered as ministers of religion in the mosques, but it is the ulemas who are its depositaries and interpreters.

The Koran, as is well known, is the civil and criminal code of the Mussulmans, the regulator of the rights and duties of all the citizens: all judgments, all sentences, all decisions must have emanated from this book reputed sacred, or from the interpretations which commentators have given of it, in this prerogative resides exclusively in the hands of the ulemas.

The following is in a few words the order presented by this body, the most respectable and the best informed of the Ottoman Empire.

The mufti or sheik-islam is the supreme chief of the religion of MAHOMET, the oracle who is consulted, and who solves all the questions which are put to him: his decisions are called *fetfas*. The sultan has recourse to him in all difficult and intricate cases, and he promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, establishes no impost without having obtained a *fetfa*. It is the mufti who girds on the sultan's sword on his accession to the throne, at the same time reminding him of the obligation of defending the religion of the prophet and of propagating its creed.

This eminent place might serve, no doubt, as a counterpoise to the almost absolute and unlimited authority of the sovereign: it might even frequently paralyze it, if the latter had not the power of appointing the mufti, of deposing him, of banishing him, and even of putting him to death after having deposed him; and, indeed, it seldom happens that a mufti opposes the will of the sultan and his ministers. His *fetfas* are forced from him by the wish of preserving his place and by the fear of death: yet more than once religious  
zeal

zeal and probity have induced some to present themselves to the sultan, and to make to him observations and remonstrances; some even, more fanatic and more courageous, braving every danger, have refused to condescend to his wishes. History affords various examples of sultans and vizirs killed or deposed through the great influence of the muftis on public opinion; but it likewise presents more muftis who have been victims of their zeal for religion and of their attachment to the interests of the people.

The mufti resides at CONSTANTINOPLE and enjoys several appanages: he is treated with much attention by the sultan; both the great and the people shew him the utmost respect, and submit blindly to his fetfas. According to the established order, he must be chosen from among the kadilekiers of ROMANIA and those who have occupied that employment. Seldom does favour there lead to the appointment of a kadilekier of NATOLIA, a stambol-effendi, or a simple molla: he remains in place as long as it pleases the sultan to keep him there.

In public ceremonies the mufti and the grand vizir walk on the same line, the grand vizir on the right, and the mufti on the left. When the latter is disgraced, he is not permitted to remain in the capital: the sultan fears the influence of a man whom the people are accustomed to regard as the oracle of religion. He is banished to some island of the ARCHIPELAGO or to some house situated on the BOSPHORUS, with a prohibition to stir out of it, to receive any of the principal officers of the empire, or to correspond with them.

The mufti presents annually a list to the sultan for the nomination of two kadilekiers, of the stambol-effendi, of the mollas of MECCA and of MEDINA, of those of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, CAIRO, and DAMASCUS, as well as of those of JERUSALEM, ALEPPO, SMYRNA, LARISSA, SALONICA, SCUTARI, GALATA, and AIJUF. It is commonly according to the rank of seniority that  
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the choice is made, when favour does not call thither some protected person or the son of some great man.

There are at CONSTANTINOPLE two kadileskers, that of ROMANIA or of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA or of TURKEY in ASIA. They were formerly the judges of military men, the former for European TURKEY, and the latter for the Asiatic countries, when the sultan commanded them in person. The kadilesker of ROMANIA was then charged to decide on the affairs of the Mussulmans, and the other on those of the tributary subjects. For some time past, the former has the pre-eminence over the latter, and determines alone all the causes carried to his tribunal by the sole will and at the request of the plaintiffs. The tribunal of the kadilesker of NATOLIA has been a long time suppressed as useless. They both assist at the divan of the grand visir, hear and discuss the business brought before them, after which the kadilesker of ROMANIA alone pronounces the sentence. They remain in place only a year; but the kadilesker of NATOLIA generally succeeds that of ROMANIA, and the former has before passed through the same rank. They appoint all the simple cadis of the empire; which makes their place, in a country where every thing is venal, very lucrative, independently of the appanages which they possess. The kadilesker of ROMANIA appoints the cadis of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA appoints those of ASIA and EGYPT.

After them comes the stambol-effendi, molla or judge of the capital. It is he who more particularly takes cognizance of all the affairs, of all the law-suits which arise among persons who exercise the different arts and trades. He also repairs on the Wednesday of every week to the visir's, in order to determine with the mollas of GALATA, SCUTARI, and AIJUP\*, all the affairs

\* AIJUP is one of the suburbs of Constantinople.

which there present themselves. He has several tribunals in different quarters of CONSTANTINOPLE, where he places a naïb or lieutenant, to determine without appeal like himself.

The stambol-effendi has the general inspection of the grain and other provisions which arrive for the supply of the city. All the vessels laden with grain are obliged to come to the landing-place of the general depot of flour, *oun-capan*, where a naïb inspects it, fixes the price of it, and distributes it to the bakers: he keeps a register of the quantity of corn which arrives, of that which is distributed, and of the price at which it is delivered. There is likewise a naïb at the depot of tallow, *yac-capan*, for the distribution of that article to the corporations. The stambol-effendi must go from time to time into the different quarters of the city, in order to examine the eatables which are sold by retail, and to verify whether the weights are every where just. He immediately punishes with the bastinado those who are found with false weights, or with adulterated commodities, and sometimes he causes them to be nailed by the ear to the door of the shop. A second transgression is almost always punished with death.

The stambol-effendi remains in office but one year: he generally passes to that of kadilefker of NATOLIA, and is appointed from among the mallas of MECCA and MEDINA.

To the imperial mosques of CONSTANTINOPLE, BURSA, and ADRIANOPLE, are attached *madressés* or colleges, to which are sent, from all parts of the empire, young people to be instructed in the law of the prophet, in religious, civil, and criminal jurisprudence, and to learn all the opinions, all the subtleties of the commentators of the Koran. They are made to undergo various examinations, and when they are thought sufficiently well informed, they are given the rank of *muderis* or professor. These colleges were  
founded

founded by different sultans. The first was founded at NICEA, in the year 1330, by ORKHAN. They enjoy a considerable revenue, and provide for the support of two or three thousand scholars.

The muderis who are not willing to follow the career of professor and obtain the eminent rank of molla, solicit of the kadilekers a place of cadi, which is easily gained in return for a pecuniary sacrifice. In the towns the least important of the empire, there is a simple cadi, who judges without appeal all litigious affairs, not only of the Mussulmans, but even those of the Jews and Christians. Frequently a lieutenant, called *naib*, occupies the place of a cadi or of a molla, and judges like them without appeal: the *naib* is a muderis, and runs the career of magistracy. He is generally appointed cadi the following year, and sent to another post. The cadis remain in this rank, and obtain no other advancement than that of a tribunal more extensive and consequently more lucrative. They, nevertheless, become mollas of an inferior rank: such are those of BAGDAD, PHILOPOPOLIS, &c. but they cannot become kadilekers, muftis, &c. unless they enter the grand mosque of SOLIMANI and continue their studies.

The muderis who intend themselves for the most important places, those of molla, kadileker, and mufti, pass, after fresh examinations, to the mosque of *SULKIMANI* or of *SOLIMANI*, and wait till their turn, their merit, or their interest procures them an appointment. Eight among them, under the name of *makhredjé*, are appointed every year mollas or judges of the towns of JERUSALEM, ALEPPO, SMYRNA, LARISSA, CALONICA, SCUTARI, GALATA, and AIJUP. Four, among the latter, are afterwards named to the cities of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, CAIRO, and DAMASCUS, and the following year two of these become mollas of MECCA and of MEDINA: from among these last is taken the stambol-effendi. Thus it is that, successively in their turn, they arrive at the places of kadileker and even of mufti.



For a *muderis* to obtain the favour of passing to the mosque of *SULEIMANI*, and run the career of high magistracy, he must be protected or shew ardent zeal for religion, distinguished talents, great application to study, and very austere manners.

The *mollas*, the *kadileskers*, and others who are not employed, and who are waiting their turn to be so, have appanages or benefices called *ar-paliks*. Several obtain inferior tribunals, where they place *naïbs* who discharge their functions, and to whom they grant only a part of the income.

Frequently the *pachas* and great officers of state cause one or more of their sons to be received into the body of the *ulemas*, in order to have it in their power to transmit to them their property, and by these means withdraw it from the confiscation which the sultan has a right to make of it after their death. In this case, they content themselves with calling under their roof professors to instruct their sons, and to make them undergo the examinations prescribed by the law: they get them admitted as *muderis*, and, if favour second their ambition, they cause them to pass through all the ranks of *mollas*, without performing the duties of them, and without receiving the income, the place being occupied by another. The sultan, always above the law, creates *ulemas* at pleasure; which is the reason that, for some time past, there have been a great many ignorant *mollas* and *cadis*. The appointments of favour have been very prejudicial to that body, and have diminished the consideration which it enjoyed. It is no longer so formidable to the throne, as it was formerly; for a simple pacha frequently procures the exile of a *cadi* who counteracts him or opposes his will. It happens too that when the sultan wishes to put to death an *ulema* whose zeal and courage give him umbrage, he endeavours by feigned caresses, to make him accept a *pachalik* or any other employment: then become agent of the government, he orders his head to be cut off without any formality.

In some of the provincial towns, are muftis of a rank inferior to that of *muftalla*, whose functions confift in interpreting the Koran, and its commentaries, affifting at great assemblies, and giving their opinion on all the questions which are there agitated. Their opinions frequently differ in matters of jurisprudence, but they are nearly the fame in religious affairs; which caufes them all to be confidered as orthodox. They are appointed for life by the mufti of the capital, and have fixed ~~salaries~~. They are not judges of the town where they are placed; they are there only as lawyers. They are *muderis*, and as fuch affociated to the body of the ~~the~~ ulemas; but they have renounced magiftracy, and can obtain no other advancement than that of being fent by favour into a town more confiderable.

The immediate minifters of religion, as I have before mentioned, make no part of the body of ulemas: they can, nevertheless, be admitted into it, either by undergoing examinations and getting themfelves received as *muderis*, or by obtaining through favour a place of provincial mufti, of *cadi*, or of *naïb*. If, after having occupied with diftinction thefe employments, they get themfelves admitted into the body of the *muderis*, and wifh to pafs to the mosque of SOLIMAN, they can then arrive at the moft eminent places of judicature. The firft rank among them is that of *fcheik* or preacher, whose function is to preach in the mosques every Friday after the noon prayer, and even oftener when there are foundations for that purpose. The *fcheiks* of the fourteen imperial mosques of CONSTANTINOPLE are the moft confidered in the empire, and are appointed by the mufti; thofe of the other mosques are named by the magiftrate of the place or of the diftrict.

The *khatibs* have no other employment than that of difcharging, in imitation of the prophet and of the firft caliphs, and in the place of the fultan who represents them, the functions of *imameth* or of the priesthood, at the folemn prayer which takes place on the Friday, and of reciting the *khoutbé*

or public profession respecting the unity and the attributes of the Supreme Being, accompanied by a prayer for the preservation and prosperity of the sultan, and for the success of his arms against the infidels. They are appointed by a *khatty-scherif*, signed by the hand of the sultan.

The *iman* recites in a loud voice, in the mosque, five times a day, except at the solemn Friday's prayer, the *namaz*, which the persons present repeat in a low tone; he at the same time performs the ceremonies which accompany that prayer; he assists at circumcision and interments; in a word, he discharges all the functions which worship requires.

In the early ages of Mahometanism, *iman* signified and designated the pontiff or the supreme chief of Islamism: the successors of the first four caliphs took only the title of *iman-ul-muslimin*, pontiff of the Mussulmans. The doctors and interpreters of the law were afterwards decorated with it, and, for some time past, it has no longer been given to any but the ministers of religion.

The functions of *muezim* are to ascend five times a day to the minaret, there to proclaim aloud the profession of faith of MAHOMET, invite the Mussulmans to prayer, and sing, on festivals, different hymns. For that purpose, young men, whose voice is strong, clear, and sonorous, are chosen; for the Turks take a great pleasure in hearing good singing on the minarets. In the little mosques, the *muezims* sweep and arrange the carpets, light the lamps, &c.; but this function, in the great ones, is reserved for other young men called *cayims*. In the greater part of the villages, and even in some mosques of the towns, whose revenue is too limited, the *iman* discharges at the same time the functions of *scheik*, *khatib*, *iman*, *muezim*, and *cayim*. The mosques of the second order, called *mesjids*, have no need of a *khatib*, because they have not the right to celebrate the solemn prayer of Friday.

In TURKEY, are not known that multitude of counsellors, attornies, clerks, ~~butts~~, judges in the first, second, and third instance, who, in EUROPE, multiply, without end, the expenses of a trial, and that chicane, those subtleties, those forms, those delays, those appeals, which render them interminable: neither are there known those officious defenders, often worse than the counsellors and attornies whose place they have supplied among us, and whose greedy cupidity sometimes leaves to the man, too simple or too sanguine, nothing but tears to shed and regret to express.

A *mékemé* or tribunal of justice is composed of a judge molla, cadî, or naîb, and of one or several writers. Almost all causes, as well civil as criminal, are determined according to the deposition of two or more witnesses. Every writing is of no value, and is not admitted in justice, if it bear not the signature or the seal of two persons known and settled as housekeepers. The parties present themselves, plead their cause, which is tried without appeal, and without any other expense than ten per cent. of the sum or the value in dispute. The judge appropriates to himself a fine more or less heavy, when there is no question of an affair of interest: and, in order that he may not lose his fees, it is always the gainer of the cause who pays the costs.

In a country where the laws are simple and by no means numerous, where the rights of all are traced in a book understood to be written by the hand of the messenger of God, trials must be far from complicated, rather rare, and easy to be avoided. Every one knows the extent of his duties, and the limits of his rights. Every one can be his own judge, when he does not give way to a vicious inclination, when he is not misled by dishonesty.

But it must be confessed that if trials are more rare and less expensive than among us, if the same day which witnesses the origin of a dispute sees, in

a man-

a manner, its termination, justice is not, on that account, better administered : the venality of all employments has introduced into every profession and into every class of the inhabitants of this empire, an avidity for gain and such a corruption, that the smallest favour, the smallest service are obtained only by presents. A person purchases the sentence of the judge and the deposition of the witnesses, as you purchase an employment, as you purchase the favour of a man in place. In no country on earth are false witnesses so common and so shameless as in TURKEY, and it seldom happens that a cadi or a molla is bold enough to resist the will of a pacha, or the solicitations of a great man, and virtuous enough to disdain the gold which is offered them by the pleaders.

The Mussulmans have such a contempt for all those who profess a religion different from theirs, that they do not, in general, admit as evidence, in affairs which concern them, Jews and Christians, in opposition to Turkish witnesses ; or if they admit them sometimes, they have so little respect for them, that ten witnesses, among them, are not worth one single Mussulman witness. It is the same in the affairs which do not regard them : the testimony of a Mussulman cannot, in any case, be balanced by that of several Jews or Christians.

TOURNEFORT was mistaken, when he says that, at CONSTANTINOPLE, a person could appeal from the sentence of a cadi : Europeans alone enjoy that advantage, when the sum in litigation exceeds 4000 aspres or nearly the value of 66 livres, supposing the piastre at 2 livres. In all the towns of TURKEY, the molla, the cadi, and the simple naib, judge without appeal : they condemn to fines, to corporal punishments, or to death, without the delinquent or person accused having it in his power to have recourse to another tribunal.

Europeans have also the advantage of paying no more than three per cent. in lieu of ten, which is paid by all the inhabitants of the country; but it may easily be conceived that a judge, ever ready to receive money from one of the parties, cannot bring himself to decide a cause in favour of an European, if he do not promise him beforehand the ten per cent. and even a present calculated on the importance of the trial.

The merchants are, in general, averse to carrying their disputes to the capital, because they are not willing to go far from the place of their occupations, and because they rather frequently mistrust the probity and the zeal of the drogoumans charged, in that case, with presenting their cause at the audience of the visir, and with prosecuting the trial of it. They prefer making sacrifices which are prejudicial to commerce in general, because the dishonest man who cheats with impunity, very often finds imitators; whence it follows that confidence is destroyed, credit becomes more rare, and the operations of trade diminish, or present many more difficulties.

The formula observed in all cases by lawyers, consists in the clear and simple exposition of the fact, presented to the judge by one of his clerks: the answer which he puts at the bottom in a few words, is only the application of the law. The sentence pronounced in a mékemé is called *ilam*, and the order signified to a person to repair to the tribunal, to pay such a sum, to go to prison, &c. is called *muraşşolê*.

The muftis of the provinces frequently assist at the mékemés, and are consulted in matters purely religious, and in affairs of high importance; but it is always the ordinary judge who pronounces the *ilam*.

There are divers tribunals in the remote quarters and in the suburbs of CONSTANTINOPLE, where a naïb tries without appeal all the causes which  
are

are presented. Every one has, nevertheless, the right to carry his affair directly to the stambol-effendi, molla or judge of CONSTANTINOPLE, or to the kadilesker of ROMANIA: but a great number prefer carrying it to the *divan* of the grand visir, that is to say, to the PORTE or to the *arzodassé*, that is, to the audience-chamber of the grand-visir, although in these last two cases, it is the kadilesker of ROMANIA who pronounces the sentence: that of NATOLIA is present without pronouncing; he is merely consulted in affairs a little intricate.

What determines people to carry an affair into the two tribunals of the grand-visir, is that false witnesses dread to come thither, because, being interrogated in his presence, he can send them to prison, order them to be cudgelled, and even cause their hands to be cut off if he perceive that they give a false evidence; while the judges have not the same right, but sometimes find themselves compelled to pronounce their sentence according to the deposition of the witnesses, notwithstanding the conviction which they have of their dishonesty.

The two kadileskers assist on Friday only at the *divan* and the *arzodassé* of the grand-visir. The stambol-effendi and the mollas of GALATA, SCUTARI, and AIJUB assist there on Wednesday, and, like the others, sit first at the *arzodassé*, and then at the *divan*. The stambol-effendi pronounces the sentences on that day, as the kadilesker of ROMANIA pronounces them on the Friday.

Every judge, in his department, causes to be performed by one of his writers the duties of *caffam*, which consist in presenting themselves at the houses of all the deceased in order to affix seals, make out an inventory of the inheritance, and distribute it to the right heirs, according to the laws, or according to the intentions of the testator.

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When a pacha or any other agent of the government dies, his property belongs of right to the public treasury, because the law supposes that this property arises from the public money, or from extortions committed on the people; which is almost always true in Turkey. The sultan sends a capidgi-bachi or one of his pages, to recover it; but he never touches the personals, the jewels, and property which belong to the women. He even rather frequently grants a part of the property to the children, as a reward for the services of the father; and sometimes he gives up to them the whole, when the succession is scarcely sufficient for their wants. On the death of the reis-effendi RASCHID, which happened in the year VI. (1798) a little time before our departure from CONSTANTINOPLE, sultan SELIM contented himself with taking a rich cangear\*: he gave up to the family the sum of thirty purses (30,000 livres or 1250l. sterling) which RASCHID owed to the mint, and made them a present besides of eighty purses (80,000 livres or 2334l. sterling,) through gratitude for the services, the zeal, and the talents of that minister.

It frequently happens that an arrangement is made, by which the relations of the deceased keep all the property that he had, for a sum of money paid into the public treasury; and often, through this very arrangement, the son succeeds to the employment of the father.

When an agent of the government has caused to be received into the body of the ulemas one or more of his sons, the property which he has settled on them, the purchases which he has made in their name, belong to them, and the imperial treasury always respects them. As for the mallas and the cadis, as we have before said, through a prerogative attached to their body, all their property is transmitted entire to their children or their heirs, whatever may be their profession or their rank in society.

\* A large knife which the Mussulmans wear in their girdle, the handle of which is of silver, gold, ivory, jasper, or coral, enriched with emeralds, rubies, and diamonds.

This prerogative, attached to the body of the ulemas, must necessarily, in a few generations, accumulate immense riches in the hands of some individuals, if the son followed the career of his father, and limited his ambition to occupying the eminent, lucrative, and honourable places of magistracy; but almost all, in the view of obtaining greater consequence, and more extensive power, disdain the employments of their father, and solicit places of minister and pacha, which they almost always obtain by means of their riches. They then become agents of the government, all their property returns, at their death, into the public treasury, and the children are left at the mercy of the sultan.

A Mussulman or any other subject, who possesses no administrative or military place, is master of his property, and transmits it to his heirs: he may dispose, if he chooses, of a third of his fortune, when he has children or relations, and of the whole when he has none at all. If he die intestate and without natural known heirs, the *beitalmalldgi*, or farmer of casual property, causes a sale to be made of his effects, moveable or immoveable, of which the *cassam* makes a memorandum, and takes possession of their produce in the name of the imperial treasury. Should an heir some time after present himself, who can prove to the *mékemé* his relationship, the *beitalmalldgi* is obliged to restore the property of the deceased. There are, for these little successions, particular farms, united, in the provinces, to the other rights of the pachas, mutselims, or waiwodes. CONSTANTINOPLE, on account of its extent, has a particular farmer for that object; but if the succession exceed 2500 piastrres (5000 livres or 208l. sterling) the farmer has not the right of appropriating it to himself; it is paid directly into the public treasury.

There are four cases in which inheritance cannot take place: these are when there is, 1. difference of religion: 2. difference of country: 3. slavery: 4. assassination or poisoning.

1. A Christian, a Jew, or a Mussulman cannot inherit the one from the other. A father and his sons, or two brothers, of different religion, cannot transmit to each other their successions. The Greeks and the Armenians, Schismatic or Roman, being considered by the law, as Christians, cannot succeed to each other.

2. By difference of country, is understood Mussulman country, and country not Mussulman. A man charged with a mission by the government, or absent for affairs of trade, without an intention of expatriating himself, is not excluded from the right of inheritance.

3. A slave cannot inherit from his master, as long as he is in a state of slavery.

4. A person cannot inherit from his parent whom he may have killed or poisoned, although he were absolved of the crime.

## CHAPTER XVII.

*Of the pachas, waiwodes, and mufelims.—Of the beylers-beys, sangiaks-beys, zaïms, and timariots.—Of the janizaries, spahis, and other military men.—Limits of the power of the fultan and of the pachas:*

IF the judicial power, as well as the religious, resides in the hands of the ulemas, the pachas unite the military power with the administrative: they are governors, military commanders, and intendants of their provinces; and, through an abuse infinitely prejudicial to the interests of the people, the greater part of them hold at the same time the general farm of the taxes. The pacha with three tails is invested with a very great authority; he has, like the fultan whom he represents, the terrible right of punishing with death all the agents that he employs, without any other formality than that of giving an account to the fultan of the motives which determined him to this act of justice, severity, or rigour. He maintains a military establishment more or less numerous, according to the position and the revenues of the pachalik, and marches at the head of the armed force of all his department when he is required to do so by the sovereign, or when the frontier is threatened. He superintends the assessment of the taxes, the repairing and the keeping in order of public edifices, fortresses, &c.

The pacha with two tails has not a power so extensive, nor a department so considerable: he cannot put any one to death without a legal trial; he is, like another, chief of the armed force of his department; but when he takes the field, he is obliged to unite his standards to those of the pacha with three tails, and to march under his orders.

The *mutfelim* is a deputy-governor, a lieutenant of the pacha ; he enjoys, in his district, all the rights given him by the power of execution : he is chief of the armed force ; but he is subject in every thing to the pacha on whom he depends, and whose orders he receives.

The *waiwode* is governor of a small province, or of a town which, not making part of a pachalik, is sometimes the appanage of a sultana, of the grand visir, of the captain-pacha, or of any other great officer of the empire. He enjoys all the prerogatives of a pacha with two tails, but he occupies an inferior rank. When he is required to march at the head of the armed force of his department, he joins his colours to those of the pacha with three tails. Both the one and the other are charged with carrying into execution, in their provinces, the sentences pronounced by the judges.

In the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, the *Mussulman* or Greek simply charged by the PORTE with the gathering of the tax and with the police of the place, is likewise distinguished by the name of *waiwode*.

To the governors of provinces were formerly given indifferently the names of pacha and of *beyler-bey* : the latter at this day is reserved for the pachas of MANASTIR and of CUTAYÉ : they have the pre-eminence over the other pachas, and generally command the troops which are brought into the field. The *beyler-bey* of MANASTIR has under his orders the European troops, and the *beyler-bey* of CUTAYÉ those of ASIA. They are, nevertheless, subordinate to the grand-visir when the latter takes the general command of the armies.

A pachalik is divided as to the military part, into a certain number of districts called *sangiaks* or *standards*. The janizaries, the *spahis*, the *zaïms*, and the *timariots* of the district are obliged, in case of war, to unite under the colours

colours of the military commander, called *sangiak-bey*, and to wait for the commands of the pacha of the province, in order to march against the enemy, punish some rebel, or subdue some revolted province.

In proportion as the Turks drove the Greeks from ASIA MINOR and EUROPE, and established themselves on their territory, they created a sort of feudal system no less oppressive than that from which our ancestors have had so long to suffer. Masters, according to their customs, of the fortune, of the liberty, and of the life of the people that they had conquered, the sultans disposed at their pleasure, after each victory, of the lands which they had just united to their empire: they granted for ever, without quitrent, some portions of them near the towns and within their walls, to the officers and soldiers whose zeal and bravery they wished to reward: they destined a tolerably great number of them to religious worship; they reserved some, as an appanage, for the great administrative and judicial employments; they erected others into lordships, under the names of *zaïm* and *timar*, to be given for life, as military rewards and encouragements.

Almost all the rich Greeks were dispossessed of their property: most of the opulent men were unmercifully murdered, and their estates confiscated. As for the lands divided into small portions, some were the prey of the conqueror, the others remained in the hands of their old proprietors, with the power for all to transmit them to their heirs, to sell them and exchange them; but they were oppressed by an annual quitrent; namely, by a fifth of their produce for the *rayas* or infidels, and by a seventh only for those which fell to the Mussulmans.

Those who possess a *zaïm* or a *timar*, are honoured with the title of *aga*: they are bound to a military personal service, and obliged to bring with them, to war, one or more *gébélis*, horsemen or foot-soldiers, armed and equipped according

according to the revenue and extent of the lordship. The timar differs in no respect from the zaïm, except that it is of less value, and that the aga who possesses it, does not arm as many horsemen and foot-soldiers as the other.

The number of zaïms, in TURKEY in EUROPE, is nine hundred and fourteen, and that of the timars is eight thousand three hundred and fifty-six. Nearly the same number is reckoned in ASIA; which furnishes, with the gé-bélis, a militia of upwards of sixty thousand men better disciplined and more inured to war than the spahis and the janizaries. This militia for a long time constituted the principal force of the Ottoman Empire: to this it is principally that the first sultans were indebted for the astonishing success of their arms, and the rapid progress which they made in a little time in ASIA, in EUROPE, and even in AFRICA.

On the death of a ziamet or of a timariot, the sultan is to draw a year's revenue from the lordship, and, nevertheless, give it up again to the son of an aga, a spahis or any other military man, especially to him who, by a brilliant action, has distinguished himself in a battle; who has mounted the first to the assault, has penetrated into the enemy's entrenchments, has killed a great number of infidels, or contributed to put them to the rout. But since the sultans prefer to the fatigues of war, to the dangers of battle, the tranquillity of their seraglio, and the pleasures of their harem; since, above all, a mean and inconsiderate cupidity has caused to be put up to auction the places intended formerly for valour and merit, the lordships are become the patrimony of the rich and of intriguers. The courage of the soldier has no longer been stimulated by the hope of plunder, that of making prisoners or of obtaining a few pieces of money which the general sometimes causes to be distributed after the battle, to those who have brought in enemies' heads. Thus it is that the best institutions degenerate; thus it is that the Mussulman formerly intrepid and valiant, is no longer any thing but a vile-plunderer or a ferocious assassin; thus

thus it is that the Ottoman armies, so formidable to their enemies, are become an object of contempt or pity, and that this vast empire would already no longer be in existence, were not some European powers interested in its support.

The aga at the present day obtains, in his life-time, with tolerable facility, the grant of the lordship which he enjoys, in favour of one or more of his sons, for a sum of money inferior to that which is paid when it is put up to auction ; but if he neglect this precaution, at his death his son is dispossessed if he do not outbid the competitors, or if, powerfully protected, he do not at least pay the price offered by another.

Most of the agas, little accustomed to the fatigues of war and to the privations which it necessitates, for a long time past have exempted themselves, under various pretexts, from military service : they always find the pachas and the fangiaks-beys disposed to receive a present from them, and grant them the exemption which they request. They frequently get their place supplied by some volunteer, or if they themselves join their colours, they never want pretexts for quitting them before the end of the campaign and returning to their home.

The cultivators are free and independent, in consideration of the quitrent to which they are subject ; they may establish whatever culture they think the most suitable to their interests, without the aga having a right to molest them ; but too frequently the latter abuses his influence, his riches, and above all the police which he exercises in his village. He exacts, with the rod in his hand, for particular lands which he possesses, the gratuitous labour of the cultivators : he causes provisions, wine excepted \*, to be sold to him at the

\* Mussulmans are forbidden to make, drink, or purchase wine.

price which he himself determines; he makes the advances of the *karatch* \* at an interest extremely usurious; in a word, he torments in a thousand ways the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews of his village; but he is more reserved towards the Mussulmans, because the complaints of the latter are always more favourably heard, because he would infallibly be removed from his office, and even more severely punished, if all the Turks of the village, protected or supported by some powerful enemy of the aga, rose at the same time and demanded justice.

Throughout the whole empire there are two sorts of organized troops, the one of cavalry, the other of infantry, the *spahis* and the *janizaries*. The former are spread over all the towns, and more particularly in the country-places: they are almost all married and settled; they exercise different professions or sometimes apply themselves to the culture of the land; they receive a daily pay, have their officers, and assemble at the first order, armed and equipped, under the colours of their district.

The *spahis* are a more ancient corps than the *janizaries*: they have more pay, and are understood to be the sons of Mussulmans in a certain degree of affluence; they fight under the same ensigns as the *ziamets* and the *timariots*, and ought to succeed them in the possession of their fiefs, if the regulations of the first sultans were more respected, or the national interest a little more consulted.

Under the first sultans, the *spahis* formed the principal strength of the Ottoman armies. Almost always in the field, familiarized to military exercises, hardened to the fatigues of war, stimulated by interest, glory, religious fanaticism, and by the example of the sultan, it is not surprising that nothing should

\* Capitation or personal impost to which non-Mussulmans are subject.

withstand their arms, and that the Greeks, enervated by luxury and riches, solely occupied by intrigues and theological questions, should be as soon subjugated as conquered.

In the reign of AMURAT I a fifth part of all the prisoners was begun to be taken for the purpose of forming a new corps of infantry, under the name of *yenitscheri*, janizaries, or new militia. The necessities of the war afterwards produced another law which incorporated in this corps a tenth part of the children of the Christians, and which was in vigour till the reign of AMURAT IV. Under that of SOLIMAN I. there were already one hundred and sixty-one *odas* \* of janizaries at CONSTANTINOPLE, each of which contained from three to five hundred persons.

At present none but Mussulmans are received into this militia: they are scattered and organized in all the towns. Those who inscribe their names in it receive a daily pay, and join their colours whenever they are required. In the large towns and in the fortresses, they are divided into chambers; they are subject to patrols, to different expeditions, to the guard of gates, &c. The greater part are married, settled, and exercise different professions. These renounce all promotion, and generally exempt themselves, under various pretexts, from joining their colours.

Many rich persons, in the towns, enlist among the janizaries, in the view only of being more effectually protected, and of enjoying all the privileges attached to that corps. They receive no pay, and, for a little money, easily exempt themselves from all military service.

The commandant-general of this troop is called *janizary-aga*; he resides at CONSTANTINOPLE; and, although he enjoys great power, and great consider-

\* *Oda*, chamber, or company.

ation, he has a rank inferior to that of pacha. In most of the towns where the pachas with three tails reside, there is likewise a janizary-aga, divisional general of the infantry of the whole province. He is subject to the pacha, whose orders he receives and executes.

During several reigns, religious fanaticism, the hope of plunder, and the presence of the sovereign rendered the janizaries extremely formidable. They flew to arms with joy, and eagerness, whenever the standard of MAHOMET was displayed, and the question was to make war against the infidels; but since European tactics have made a progress which the ignorance of the Turks could not or would not follow, and since, above all, the bonds of the empire are broken or relaxed, the warlike ardour of the janizaries is much damped. This corps, formidable for such a length of time, is no longer any thing but a shapeless mass of workmen, shop-keepers, farmers, and boatmen, without either discipline or courage, and ever ready to desert or mutiny against their officers.

For some time past there has been formed a corps of infantry of upwards of thirty thousand men, under the name of *topchis* or gunners. Scattered over the capital and the rest of the empire, they receive a moderate pay, and are obliged to join their colours when they receive orders for that purpose.

Independently of the other corps of troops, as well on foot as on horseback, which are raised in time of war, or which the pachas keep in their service, are to be distinguished the *félitchars*, a corps of cavalry, less numerous and less scattered than that of the spahis, and the *délis* or *délibachs* \*, volunteers on horseback in the service of the pachas. These *délis* are brave, determined,

\* Deli, in Turkish, signifies *mad*, and *délibach*, *mad-headed*.

enterprising, and ever ready to execute the orders of their master in the expeditions which he commands, and in the extortions which he directs. They follow him to war, perform the office of light troops, and fight without order and without discipline: they stop and bring back to battle the runaways, and frequently precipitate themselves into the enemy's ranks, with a boldness which astonishes and which sometimes determines the victory in their favour.

When a pacha is disgraced, or when, from any motive, he dismisses his *délivaches*, as they are without pay and without resources, they then commit the most terrible robberies; they spread themselves over the fields, the villages, and even the towns; they rob indiscriminately, lay all under contribution, and stop and plunder the caravans, till they are called into the service of some other pacha, or till some imposing force has put them to flight and dispersed them.

In the most despotic empire, the will of the sovereign is limited, circumscribed or fettered by laws and customs which he cannot call in question without danger: such is the Ottoman Empire. As successor of the caliphs, the sultan unites in himself every power; he is sovereign absolute, legislator, pontiff, and supreme chief of religion: he may create, change, and modify, according to his wish or his caprice, the laws of the State: he establishes the imposts and taxes which he judges necessary: he disposes at his pleasure of the eminent places, administrative and military, religious and judicial of the empire: he is master of the life and of the fortune of all his officers and of all the agents that he keeps in pay; however, he would find insurmountable obstacles if he meddled with the fundamental laws deposited in the book of the prophet, and even with most of those which custom immemorial has rendered, as it were, as sacred as the others. In establishing imposts, he takes care not to overburden the people, ever ready to manifest

their indignation, to rise, to demand the head of the vizir, to depose the sultan, and proceed to all sorts of excesses. In the appointment of lawyers, he generally respects rank and seniority of service, because he would be afraid to irritate and stir up to rebellion the august and formidable body of the ulemas: in short, he neither can legally put to death a simple individual nor usurp his property, without a previous trial, without a sentence of the lawyers.

It has, nevertheless, happened more than once that the Grand Signior, the vizir, the captain-pacha, the pachas with three tails, have put to death citizens without trial: but these cases are rare, and are not without danger. The history of this people presents a crowd of examples of sultans and vizirs killed or deposed for acts of injustice and extortions, a little too revolting. The complaints of the people have frequently forced the sultan to sacrifice to his own safety a minister, a favourite, whose crimes sometimes have been no more than a blind submission to the will of their master.

The presence of the sovereign, a greater mass of knowledge, an immense population, the division of interest, favour, and power, occasion despotism, at CONSTANTINOPLE, not to be so calamitous, nor so terrible as in the provinces, because the sultan watches over his ministers, because the people league together and revolt with success against their oppressors, because they almost always find a support in the jealousy, ambition, or probity of some man in power. But a pacha in his province, at a distance from the looks of his sovereign, master of all the armed force, and invested with powers almost unlimited, seldom finds in the tribunal of justice, in the assembly of notables, and in the enterprises of the people, a dam sufficiently strong to confine him within the limits of his duties.

Too frequently the pacha, by his courage, his boldness, and his interest, contrives to silence the judge and the honest men, to paralyze the good intentions of the divan, and to make the people whom he oppresses tremble : too frequently too the obstacles which the laws wisely oppose to his ambition, and his wickedness, remain without effect through the connivance of the prevaricating judge, of the divan charged to watch over the interests of the people : then acts of violence and injustice no longer have bounds, especially if the pacha be powerfully supported by the PORTE, and if he have in his service a great number of *délibaches* ever ready to execute his orders, and defend him in case of attack. However, when acts of injustice excite an indignation too strongly marked, the pacha endeavours to appease it by disavowing the officer executor of his orders, by removing him, and even by putting him to death. It is the Christians who have always most to suffer, because they are not supported like the Mussulmans, and because they find a greater difficulty in transmitting to the foot of the throne their just complaints. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews form between themselves corporations the chiefs of which make a few efforts to put a stop to the extortions of a governor, to cause him to be recalled or punished ; but too frequently their remonstrances remain without effect, or tend only to render their situation still worse.

The impunity of the pachas has been such for some time past, that the greater part of them have taken the liberty to set up a powerful military establishment which requires considerable expenses, far above the legal produce of their pachaliks. Extortions have increased in proportion to the number of persons that they had to maintain ; they have, by dint of money, obtained from the PORTE the junction of all the employments of the province ; they are *mouhassils* or farmers-general ; they have got themselves confirmed every year in their places, and some have ended by acquiring riches so considerable, and such an authority, that the sultan cannot find means to displace them or put  
them

them to death. But this violent state of things must necessarily have a period : the inhabitants of the country-places, overburdened with imposts, molested in their fortune, and threatened in their life, imperceptibly forsake the lands which can no longer support them ; they go into the great towns to seek that repose which they have lost in their cottages, and the means of living which they no longer find in the culture of their lands. However, the pacha exacts the same contributions, and compels those who remain, to pay for those who have fled : whence it follows, that all the inhabitants soon disappear, and that the village is for ever deserted. There is no part of the empire, at a little distance from the capital, that does not present the aspect of the most complete devastation, that does not exhibit large plains, without culture, hamlets, and villages destroyed, and without inhabitants.

It is not surprising that the governors of provinces neglect no means of squeezing the people, when they are obliged to purchase dearly that right, when they know that they cannot maintain themselves in their place, or occupy others without making new pecuniary sacrifices, when, in a word, the sovereign sells all the eminent places, and when, after his example, the ministers and the men who dispose of any employment, give it only to the highest bidder. Through a very old custom which mistrust has, no doubt, introduced, every important place is granted only for a year : a new firman is necessary for a person to be kept in it. The pachas above all, whose extensive power affords the means of screening themselves from the sovereign authority, must be regularly changed every year, and the sultan seldom deviates from this custom when he has it in his power ; but the pacha, on his side, knowing that gold, in TURKEY, can absolve a man from the greatest crimes, and cause the most revolting extortions and the most arbitrary condemnations to be forgotten, hastens to amass it ; and if to his criminal ambition he join courage, boldness, and talents, he obtains with the three tails, an eminent pachalik : he then endeavours to maintain himself in his post,

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by preventing, on the one hand, the complaints respecting his conduct from reaching the throne, and, on the other, by performing scrupulously the engagements which he has contracted towards the imperial treasury; but if he succeed, like the pachas of SCUTARI, PALESTINE, BAGDAD, and so many others, in extending his government, and rendering it sufficiently productive to have an army, he obliges the sovereign to spare him, to confirm him every year in his pachalik, and to preserve only the appearance of power. True it is that, in that case, the sultan employs his two great means, cunning and patience; he dispatches secretly, and under various pretexts, *capidgis* to the pacha of whom he wishes to be rid: if the latter be not sufficiently mistrustful for preventing any suspicious man from approaching too near him, he receives the mortal blow, and the *capidgi* instantly produces the *ferman* of the Grand Signior, which all the by-standers, in their turn, kiss with respect, and place on their head in token of submission.

What delays the ruin of the greater part of the provinces, are the *ayams*, (an Arabic word which signifies *eye*,) whose employment is to watch over the safety and the fortune of individuals, over the good order and the defence of a town, to oppose the unjust enterprises of the pachas, the exactions of the military, and to concur in the just assessment of the taxes. Appointed by the people, they are generally men reputed the most virtuous, who undertake this honourable function: there are several of them in the great towns; a single one commonly unites several villages in the plains. The *ayams* receive no other reward for their zeal and their trouble, than the consideration, almost always merited, which they enjoy, and the satisfaction which an honest man feels when he is useful to his fellow-creatures.

The *ayams* call to their divan the notables of the town and the lawyers, in order to discuss subjects of a very great interest, to digest with them the remonstrances to be made to the pacha, and to establish in concert  
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the motives of complaint which they judge necessary to be presented against him to the Pasha.

What likewise contributes in the towns to the safety of the individuals who are not attached to the military service, and who occupy no place emanating from the government, is that almost all the Mussulmans, from the merchant down to the lowest workman, belong to an organized corporation, the chiefs of which are charged to watch over the rights of the community and of individuals. If a butcher, a fruiterer, for instance, be attacked by any man of weight, the affair is carried to the *mékemé* or tribunal of justice. The chiefs present themselves to defend the individual oppressed; they represent that from such a period this man has been settled in the neighbourhood, that he has always led an exemplary life, that he is a good Mussulman, a good father, a good husband, and they assist at the hearing of the witnesses; if they discover that the accused is really guilty, they retire, and give him up to the rigour of the laws: if they believe, on the contrary, that he is innocent, they defend him with courage, call in, if it be necessary, the whole corporation, and the oppressor is generally obliged to desist from his pursuits. But, in the country-places, the people have not the same means; they must, in that case, have recourse to the *ayams* or to the *kiaya* of the village, a sort of municipal officer elected by the people, with whom rest all the affairs of the hamlet, all the demands of money, &c.: it is generally the richest or the most intelligent of the village, who performs gratuitously this function. The greater part of the *kiayas* are reproached, perhaps with some reason, with having a secret understanding with the pachas, with facilitating their extortions, and enriching themselves almost always at the expense of those whom they ought to defend and protect.

The Jews and the Christians have also organized corporations, whose chiefs frequently bring to a hearing the complaints of the oppressed; but it sel-

dom happens that the most unjust accusation is not terminated by some sacrifices of money, unless the accused be protected by an European ambassador or consul, or by some opulent Turk. These unfortunate beings are through the whole empire, the cow which the Mussulmans are eager to milk whenever their necessities require it.

CHAPTER XVIII.

*Of the grand visir.—Of the divan of the Porte, and of the members of whom it is composed.—Of the kadjakians and of the vacoufs.*

THE dignity which is on a footing with that of mufti or of sheik-islam, but the powers of which are much more extensive, is that of grand visir or of visir-azem. Being the lieutenant of the sultan, in whose name he governs and from whom he holds the seal, invested with the greatest authority, and intrusted with all the power of execution, the visir may strike off the heads of persons receiving salaries who oppose the progress of the government, who throw obstacles in the way of its administration, who do not obey its orders, or do not execute them according to its pleasure; he commands the armies in person; he disposes of the finances; he names or causes persons to be named to all the administrative and military employments. Nothing, in a word, is foreign to his powers, but the interpretation of the law intrusted to the ulemas.

But the greater the power of the grand visir, the greater is his responsibility. He is accountable both to the sovereign and to the people, for the acts of injustice which he commits, for the unfortunate result of his administration, for the extortions which he does not repress; he is accountable, above all, for the unexpected dearness of provisions, for too frequent fires, and for the defeats of the armies: all the misfortunes of the State are attributed to him. The sword, always suspended over his head, strikes him equally whether he displease the people, or disoblige the sultan.

Secretly attacked by those who are ambitious of his place, by those whom he has dissatisfied, or to whom he has done an ill office, surrounded by snares, and exposed to every shaft, it is extremely rare for a vizir to grow old in the dangerous post which he occupies, if he possess not the difficult art of making the great tremble, of making himself beloved by the people, and of rendering himself necessary to the sultan. How many might we instance, whom intrigue has displaced or caused to perish, whom the sultan has sacrificed to his own safety ! How many vizirs does not history afford us, whose presumptuous ignorance has occasioned the misfortunes of the State and accelerated their own ruin !

The other ministers, obliged to confer with the grand vizir and to take his orders, disburden themselves on him of all the responsibility attached to their administration, and the counsellors by whom he is surrounded cannot save him when his ruin is resolved on. At liberty to follow or to reject their advice, there remain for him neither pretexts nor excuses : it is to him alone that the sovereign power is intrusted, it is to him alone to give an account.

The law and custom, as I have said with regard to the sultan and the pachas, have put some shackles on the right which the vizir has to punish with death all the agents, all the persons in the pay of the government. Before he strikes off the head of a great personage of the empire, he must have an order signed by the hand of the sultan ; and when a military man is in question, he must obtain the approbation of the commanders.

In the frequent excursions which he makes incog. in the city for the purpose of having an eye to good order, of informing himself of the state of the articles of food, examining the weights and measures, and inspecting the conduct of the agents appointed for the distribution of provisions, the vizir, accompanied by a public executioner, and some officers disguised like himself,  
orders

orders delinquents to be apprehended and punished on the spot : he calls out, if necessary, the guard of the quarter ; he directs the *bastinado* to be given to the shopkeepers who vend aliments of bad quality ; he causes him who is found with false weights to be nailed by the ear against the door of the shop ; he even punishes with death relapses or malversations of too serious a nature. During fires, he orders to be struck off the head of the thief caught in the very fact ; but, in those cases, the law has pronounced beforehand the penalty of death. Charged to listen to the complaints of individuals, to cause justice to be done to all, the *vizir* cannot, under any pretext, dispose legally of the life and fortune of citizens. It is not that he does not too frequently abuse his authority ; it is not that he does not sometimes yield to perfidious advice, that he does not suffer himself to be led away by motives of hatred or revenge, that the thirst of gold does not impel him to arbitrary acts ; but woe be to him if his injustice be too revolting ! When he too frequently puts himself above the laws, the people, in their turn, trample him under foot, unless the sultan be expeditious in administering justice.

At the head of the armies, far from the eye of the sovereign, the power of the grand *vizir* is disengaged from the forms which sometimes restrain him in the capital, and it must be confessed that he has the utmost need of there displaying a very great severity. The Mussulmans naturally turbulent and seditious, can be checked only by the sight of punishments. If the heads of the mutineers, of the plunderers, and of the assassins do not fall from time to time, shortly the army no longer exhibits any but scattered gangs of robbers who devastate, with the same avidity, the provinces of the empire and those belonging to the enemy.

The *kadilekars* or ordinary judges of the army follow it only when the sultan commands it in person : a *molla* appointed for that purpose always  
discharges

discharges their functions when the visir has the command. It is the same when it is submitted to a pacha ; but, in all cases, death must immediately follow the knowledge of the crime, and the sentence of the judge is but a simple formality.

The grand visir gives audience to the public on several days of the week ; he hears the complaints of the citizens, admits or rejects their petitions, permits them to plead their cause before the kadileklers, the stambol-effendi, and the mollas of GALATA, AIJUB, and SCUTARI, and to cause justice to be administered to them with sufficient dispatch ; but it is not correct to say that he renders it himself. Unless it be an affair of police, or that the petitioners and the delinquents be agents of the government, the sentences are pronounced by the ordinary judges : the visir causes them to be executed as the pachas do in the provinces.

When the grand visir is obliged to absent himself in order to take the command of the army, the sultan appoints for the interim a caïmacan or substitute who discharges his functions, is invested with the same authority, enjoys the same rights, but not the same revenues ; his salary is fixed, and the emoluments of the place belong to the visir, to whom the caïmacan must give an account of them. It is generally a pacha with three tails who is appointed to this eminent place.

A very remarkable change has taken place in the government since SELIM III. created a new council to which are at this day submitted all projects, to which are referred all important affairs, and from which emanate all the resolutions and, as it were, all the acts of the government. The responsibility of the visir must have diminished with his power : the misfortunes of the State, the public calamities cannot henceforth be attributed to him ; and if the  
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first place of the Ottoman Empire continue to be changeable and tottering, it will at least be no longer accompanied by the same dangers.

The divan or the council of the grand visir was formerly composed of six ordinary visirs or pachas with three tails, whose reputation for wisdom and intelligence was not to be equivocal. The visir asked their opinion when he thought it necessary. To this council were likewise admitted the mufti and the two kadilekiers when the law was to be consulted.

A little time after his accession to the throne, SELIM composed this council of twelve persons the most distinguished by their office. The visir and the mufti are presidents of it, the one in his quality of lieutenant-general of the empire for temporal affairs; the other as vicar of the sultan for the interpretation and depository of the laws. The other ten members are the *kiaya-bey*, the *reis-effendi*, the *tefterdar-effendi*, the *tchélébi-effendi*, the *tersana-émini*, the *tchiaoux-bachi*, two *ex-reis-effendi*, and two *ex-tefterdars effendi*.

The *kiaya-bey* is, properly speaking, the lieutenant of the visir; he momentarily discharges his functions when the latter happens to die. All affairs pass through his hands before they arrive at the visir, and all orders emanating from the PORTE receive their execution through the impulse of the *kiaya-bey*. He is appointed by the Grand Signior, on the presentation of the visir. He is generally involved in the disgrace of his principal, and if he do not lose his head as frequently as he, his fortune, in that case, always runs the greatest risk. Although he have no military rank, it may be said that he occupies the second administrative place in the empire, considering the importance and the multiplicity of his functions. If the sultan be dissatisfied with his services, he receives, on quitting his office, the dignity of simple visir or pacha with three tails. It seldom happens that he is given only the two tails when he is sent to govern a province.

The reis-effendi is, as 'it were, secretary of state, high chancellor of the empire, the principal of the *gens de plume* \*, the minister for foreign affairs. He signs all the orders of the PORTE, which do not directly concern the finances and the military operations; he treats with all the European ministers who are at CONSTANTINOPLE; in a word, every thing that concerns the foreign powers, and every thing that relates to the interior administration, passes through the channel of the reis effendi; but he does nothing without communicating it to the grand visir and taking his orders.

The tefterdar-effendi must be considered as the minister of the finances; he receives the produce resulting from the sale of the great employments, that which arises from the annual renewal of the barats or firmans obtained by the zaïms, timariots, and others, the produce of the karatch or capitation-tax on the Jews and Christians; the produce of the farmed domains, that of the customs, &c. He has a great number of offices into which are poured the different revenues of the empire, and at which are made the different payments ordered by the PORTE. There are at the head of each office, a great officer, principals and clerks taken from among the kodjakians or *gens de plume* of whom I shall have occasion to speak further on.

This minister cannot be confounded with the khafné-veliki, a black eunuch, charged with the general administration of the interior imperial treasure, into which are poured the produce of the confiscations and inheritances that serve for the support of the seraglio. The presents, the effects, the jewels which are sent by foreign powers, those acquired by conquest, the colours, &c. constitute a part of this treasure.

\* As we have not in ENGLAND those three distinctions, made in FRANCE, of *gens de plume*, *gens d'épée*, and *gens de robe*, we have deemed it more expedient to retain the French term than to employ one which might be ambiguous to the reader.—*Translator*.

The private treasure of the sultan is administered by the khafnadar-aga, one of the pages of confidence. This treasure, increased by the savings of the greater part of the sultans, is supported by the profits of the mint and by some confiscations.

The place of tchélébi-effendi did not exist formerly; it was created under the reign of SELIM III, at the same time as the tax on wine, eatables, and most articles of merchandize, as cotton, wool, &c. The produce of this tax, known by the name of *nizam-djedid*, has been appropriated to the new corps of gunners, bombardiers, matrosses, and fusileers that has been formed, to the buildings which have been constructed for them, to the foundry of cannon, to the manufactory of muskets, gun-carriages, &c. The tchélébi-effendi is the receiver-general of this tax, the administrator of these funds, the inspector-general of these establishments, the intendant of the buildings.

I have said, in another place, that the tersana-émini was the minister of the marine.

The tchiaoux-bachi is secretary of state; it is to him that a person must address himself to see the grand visir, to be admitted to his divan, to plead at his tribunal. He has about him two *tesheredjis* who receive the memorials, the claims, the petitions of the pleaders and of all those who present themselves, and who administer justice according to the order of the visir.

The captain-pacha and the kiaya of the sultana-validai are called to the extraordinary councils; and although they are not ordinary members of the council, they are consulted, and both have the greatest influence in the deliberations from the interest which the former preserves with SELIM, and from that which the latter has obtained with the sultana-mother. The latter was born

poor in CANDIA. He is said to be a man of understanding and very clever: he possesses, above all, the art of intrigue, and joins to his easy manners, an agreeable and prepossessing person.

SELIM, occupied with useful establishments, ameliorations, and changes necessitated by the critical circumstances in which he found himself on his accession to the throne, could not doubt of the success of his enterprises in causing to emanate from a council formed by the most powerful and the most enlightened men of the empire, all the innovations that he wished to introduce, all the beneficent laws that he wished to have passed. Could he suspect, that by rendering arbitrary acts less frequent, great executions more rare, by diminishing the too absolute and too tyrannical power of the visir, by submitting to discussion all the operations of the government, by promulgating no law till it had, as it were, received the sanction of his council, guilt would become more frequent, ambition more audacious, rebellion more difficult to be repressed, armies of robbers more numerous? Could he imagine, in a word, that the influence of foreign powers would be greater, and that it would succeed in stopping all the salutary measures that he wished to have adopted?

This council, unfortunately composed of members enemies among themselves, jealous of each other, more taken up with themselves than with the happiness of the State, is very far from having accomplished the intentions of SELIM. One would be inclined to believe, from seeing it sometimes in inaction in the midst of dangers, and sometimes in a route contrary to that which it ought to follow, that most of the members, far from seconding the designs of the sultan, labour, on the contrary, to make them miscarry. Since its creation, the state of affairs is daily becoming worse; the empire is menaced with a total dissolution; the finances are exhausted; and a rebel already threatens to place a stranger on the throne. He is waiting, perhaps,  
only

only for the moment when the people shall be prepared for this extraordinary event, unexampled in the Turkish annals.

If, instead of establishing a council too wavering, too weak, and too easy to be corrupted, SELIM could have intrusted authority to a vizir endowed with a rare understanding, a profound mind, a pure heart, a firm courage, and an unshaken resolution, it is not to be doubted that all his projects would have completely succeeded: the Ottoman Empire would have resumed by degrees its rank among the powers of the earth; it would at least have emerged from that state of abjection and nullity in which it has been for several reigns: the troubles of the interior would not have taken place; the rebellious pachas would have returned to their duty, and the janizaries the most mutinous would have paid with their head the first movement of insurrection which they should have made.

It is very difficult to foresee how the Ottoman Empire will extricate itself from the fatal crisis into which it has been brought. Will FRANCE, so much inclined formerly to support it \*, prevent the powers, which at this day appear to defend its interests with warmth, from making it soon undergo the fate of POLAND, or from taking from it at least a part of its dominions?

The kodjakians or *gens de plume* form in the capital a numerous body, intelligent and respected; this is the profession which holds the middle rank between the military men and the lawyers, and which is become sufficiently powerful since the ulemas are rather less so, since the divan is composed

\* The political and commercial interests which so long united FRANCE and the Ottoman Empire, have greatly changed since our establishment in EGYPT, since above all that colony leads us to hope for a more advantageous trade than that which we carried on before, and enables us to stop the pretensions which ENGLAND makes to the exclusive commerce of the whole world.

only of *gens de plume*, and since some among them obtain fiefs, military rank, and governments.

Almost all the ministers, all the agents in the different administrations of the capital, the customs, and the mosques; all the principals of offices, all the secretaries, all the clerks, all the schoolmasters; in a word, all the writers, from the simple *kiatib*, who copies books, petitions, or memorials, and him who applies himself to writing purely and correctly the language, to the *reis-effendi* who is at the head of them, are all distinguished by the name of *kodja*, and make part of that sort of corporation.

The art of transcribing the national books and especially the Koran, forms the nursery of the *gens de plume*. The number of copyists of these books is prodigious in the capital. Young men who have no fortune, and who are desirous of embracing this profession, after having learned to read and write in the schools, apply themselves first to the copying and selling of books; they afterwards draw up petitions and memorials for those who have occasion for them. If they display intelligence, and acquire information in this trade, they succeed in procuring themselves a place in some office, and by degrees, with protectors, conduct, application, and, above all, money, they arrive at the first situations in the public offices, and at the first dignities in the ministry.

The Muffulmans are indebted to the kodjas for a vast number of works held in great estimation among them, relative to the Arabic and Persian languages, philosophy, morality, Mahometan history, and the geography of their provinces; and it is among them that are generally found the statesmen the most intelligent and the most capable of serving as ministers.

The fear of depriving of their profession this great number of copyists, the opposition of almost all the powerful *gens de plume*, the refusal of the lawyers to suffer the Koran and the other books of religion to be printed, and, perhaps too, the aversion which the Mussulmans manifest for the practices and the arts of Europeans, are so many motives which concur in preventing the art of printing from being established among them in a substantial manner.

The *gens de plume* are entitled *kodjas* or *effendis*. The latter designates a man of a more distinguished rank, him, for instance, who has arrived at the first places, the first dignities. This latter title is also given to the lawyers, to the imans of the mosque. *Effendi* is the word which distinguishes *gens de plume* and lawyers from military officers, to whom are given the appellation of *aga* and *bey*.

Favour often grants military fiefs to *gens de plume* little qualified, in general, for the fatigues of war: ministers and other great personages also obtain sometimes the dignities of pacha with two or three tails, without being fit to march at the head of the troops of their provinces. But as in TURKEY it is considered rather whether the place be fit for the man than the man for the place, no *effendi* makes it a point of delicacy to solicit these important posts. What does it signify to them to have no military knowledge, provided they have a more distinguished rank, a greater authority, and they have it in their power to acquire great riches? Neither are they stopped by the contempt which the soldiers manifest for them, and by the frequent sarcasms in which the latter indulge themselves respecting them, not unfrequently even in their presence.

The administration of the pious foundations called *vakfs* or *vacoufs*, employs a great number of *gens de plume*, and procures them a situation far more lucrative than honourable. Superstition, religious zeal, and above all the tyrannical

rannical law of confiscations have caused to be converted into vacoufs a great part of private property. Without speaking of those vast domains granted to religious worship, of those villages, small towns, and countries, whose produce is appropriated to the mosques, a great number of individuals give up to them during their life, or bequeath them after their death, a part or the whole of their fortune. But, guided more frequently by motives of interest than by a religious sentiment, they make a donation of their property, for a moderate sum which they receive from the mosque, and an annuity which they bind themselves to pay to it. The enjoyment remains with the donee till the extinction of the heirs at law, in an order designated by the act.

The intention of the founder, in this case, has no other object than to put under the safeguard of religion, hitherto respected by the sultans, a property which it is very easy for a person to preserve and to transmit to his children. But sooner or later, for the want of heirs, the vacouf property devolves to the mosques. If the law do not put a stop to these donations, or if the government do not one day appropriate them to itself, almost all the immoveable property of the empire will end by being appropriated to religious worship, or devoted to pious establishments.

No foundation takes place without their being a *mutevelli* or administrator, and a *nazir* or inspector, the one for the employment of the money according to the intention of the founder, and the other for the superintendence and verification of the accounts. But, in a country where it is so rare to meet a man who resists the wish of appropriating to himself a sum of money which passes through his hands, and for which he is to account only to his conscience and to an inspector as knavish as himself, no one doubts that the *mutevelli* and the *nazir* have a secret understanding, divide between them what they can purloin, and appropriate to themselves annually sums more or less considerable, according to the importance of the foundations which they are charged to administer and superintend.

Little satisfied with the right which is adjudged them by the founder, they think to be able to excuse their criminal conduct by the inutility of the revenues which exceed the employment that is to be made of them, or perhaps they consider as indifferent to the spirit of the foundation to retain for themselves this excess, instead of distributing it to the poor, of making savings, or of improving the capital.

Most of the founders, with the twofold intention of transmitting to their heirs a certain revenue secure from the rapacious hand of the imperial treasury, and of not enriching unknown administrators and inspectors, nominate and appoint these agents in their own family. They take care, if they are attached to the government, to dispose in reality of two thirds of the income of the property that they establish *vacouf*, without which the government, which would discover the formal intention of depriving it of an immoveable property that it ought to inherit, would appropriate the whole of it to itself, to the prejudice even of the mosque named in the act of donation.

## CHAPTER XIX:

*Export-trade.—Alimentary substances.—Wood for fuel, joiner's work, carpenter's work, and ship-building.*

THE little confidence inspired by a government too frequently unjust; the little solidity presented by the fortunes of private persons, the certainty of losing one's money if the man to whom it has been lent die in an employment, or if he be punished with death for any misdemeanour, real or supposed; the tyranny which is every where exercised by those who are invested with power, the venality of the tribunals, the innumerable multitude of false witnesses—every thing in TURKEY inspires such a mistrust in affairs of commerce, that a man lends not his money but at a very high interest, and delivers not his goods on credit but at an exorbitant price. Very frequently even no business takes place if the creditor be not provided beforehand with a pledge above the value of the money which he has lent, or of the goods which he has delivered on credit. The interest of money must have risen in proportion to the risks that the lender had to run: it is generally from eight to ten per cent. in regard to Europeans; from fifteen to twenty per cent. in regard to Mussulman, Jew, Armenian, or Greek merchants; it is at thirty, forty, and even fifty per cent. in regard to the Turks who belong to the government. To private persons money is lent at twenty-five or thirty per cent. but almost always in towns, pledges are required for the security of the debt.

Honesty, however, is not entirely banished from the Ottoman Empire. The European merchants know that the countryman almost always performs without difficulty the engagements which he has contracted, that the  
man

man of business is generally the slave of his word, that the trader seldom fails to discharge his obligations when his payments become due. If probity alone be the instigator of the first, the others are anxious to preserve a spotless reputation which may increase their credit, multiply their operations, and facilitate all the affairs that they undertake.

It is with the pachas and the great that one ought to avoid to deal otherwise than with ready money, because it is they who shew the most dishonesty, and who almost always make an improper use of their authority. As much as one may be confident with the plain man who hears and follows the voice of his conscience, with the merchant always moved by self-interest which commands him to appear an honest man, so much ought one to mistrust the man of power whom intrigue has led to the first employments, who, deaf to the call of honour, thinks that he can screen himself from the eye of justice.

I shall not here establish a parallel between the different nations which inhabit the LEVANT, and which are subject to the Ottoman government. The individuals who compose them, accused of being equally covetous, equally cunning, equally knavish, nevertheless, perform their engagements when one has taken with them suitable precautions: If probity do not incline them to it, fear at least determines them, because the Turks are always there to impose on them an exaction.

As for the Mussulmans, one finds, in general, among them more sincerity: one may, in general, trust more to their word. We should consider them as the most honest and the most estimable of all, did they not shew themselves unjust towards tributary subjects: did not the contempt which they have for them induce them to violate in regard to them the law of nations, to make them undergo humiliations, and cover them not unfrequently with disgrace.

It is to the government alone, founded on an oppressive religion, that we must impute the knavery of some, the tyranny of others, the vices of all. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, deprived of the rights of citizenship, excluded from civil employments and from military service, strangers to the religion on which every thing rests, obliged to redeem every year their head by a disgraceful tax \*, threatened incessantly with the loss of their life or their fortune, and weak and unprotected, have, from their very infancy, learnt to dissemble, to give way to the smallest shock, to withdraw themselves from force by address, from violence by submission. They have been obliged to be false from habit, cringing and vile from fear, cunning and knavish from the necessity of living and existing.

The Mussulmans, vain of their superiority, insolent towards unarmed slaves, proud of belonging to a religion which inspires contempt for all those who are not admitted into it; fanatic, ferocious, and unjust through the effect of that religion; tolerated in the extortions which they exercise towards tributary subjects; emboldened even by a government which dreads those whom it oppresses; the Mussulmans, like their ancestors, would possess a disposition for greatness, heroism, and robbery, had they preserved their morals, their courage, and all their fanaticism. But at this day the sale of all employments and the precarious tenure of them makes all private persons avaricious, and converts all the depositaries of authority into oppressors. Justice is venal, because the cadis have been laid under contribution; the venality of the judges has produced false witnesses; religious zeal is relaxed, courage is worn out, immorality has crept in every where: one may say boldly that it has at the present day reached its highest pitch in the towns.

The law of confiscations has frequently occasioned to be considered as criminal men whom birth, chance, or industry had enriched. That which assigns

\* The karatch.

to the sultan the property of those who receive from him any pay whatever \*, must, like the other, necessarily have clogged the operations of commerce, inspired fears, and most contributed to the excessive rate of money.

If we except some parts of the two INDIES, in no country on earth is gold so common as in TURKEY; it circulates every where, it is the base of all payments, and every traveller has more or less in his girdle. There is not a woman who has not chains, necklaces, and other ornaments in sequins; not a child that has not on its head some pieces of money: but this gold, the ornament and dress of the women, is for ever taken away from trade. The husband, pursued by his creditors, would not dare to touch it, and the wife sometimes sees the father of her children brought to punishment, without being tempted to make the sacrifice of that gold which she has snatched from his weakness, or obtained from his affection.

TURKEY, however, is tributary to INDIA, as we are to TURKEY. The gold which the Europeans carry as a last resort to that empire in payment of its merchandise, flows, in a great measure, through the RED SEA, through the PERSIAN GULF, and through PERSIA, and is swallowed up on the fertile and industrious coast of the INDIAN OCEAN. This is what I shall explain elsewhere more minutely.

The French merchants have very frequently lamented to see in all operations of commerce, the Jews and Armenians interposed between them and the Mussulmans; but they do not pay attention that, being versed in the customs and languages of the country, these Jews and these Armenians undertook a detail for which the European merchants were not qualified. Would they go

\* All those who receive pay from the sultan or from the State, from the simple janizary up to the vizir-azem, are called *kouls* or servants; and, as such, the sultan can dispose of their life, and, if he please, seize on all their property.

like them, and scatter their money beforehand in the country-places in order to purchase at a low price commodities when they are gathered? Would they, like them, be willing to draw an usurious interest from their money? Could they keep sight of it, and would they take the steps and make the customary pecuniary sacrifices towards the cadis and the pachas when the question is to recover their demands from dishonest debtors? Undoubtedly not.— Well, let us leave to these Jews and these Armenians all the details of a traffic which can be advantageous to none but themselves, and let us confine ourselves to bartering with them our productions which they know better than we how to place suitably, which they sell retail in the town, or which they deliver to the inhabitants of the country on account of their commodities.

If we cast our eye on MARSEILLES and on all the ports of the southern departments; if we examine the prodigious number of manufactories which this trade supported in all parts of FRANCE, how many hands it occupied every where, and how many vessels and seamen it employed, we should be convinced that this trade was an inexhaustible source of riches to the mother-country and to its colonies, and that it was established in the manner the most suitable to the interests of all.

Scarcely emerged from the convulsive state in which we had been for upwards of ten years, we must hope that the LEVANT trade, no less advantageous to the Orientals than to ourselves, will soon be revived on both sides with its former activity. The war which the PORTE has been forced to declare against us, cannot be of long continuance: we shall avail ourselves of our advantageous position in spite of the efforts of a jealous and powerful enemy. We shall, in spite of him, turn to account our territorial productions and our industry. The number of our seamen will rise in proportion to our commerce: our navy is at this day without strength, because it is, in general, without instruction; without energy, because it is without confidence; with-

out success, because it is commanded by men who are no longer in their place; our navy, I say, will insure us this important trade when it shall rival in glory our armies, when the bravery of our sailors shall be directed by the talents, the information, and the prudence of their commanders.

Did not the mischievous genius of the Turks lead them to stifle conceptions and paralyze industry, did not their anti-social religion impose silence on reason and philosophy, no city in the world would be better calculated to serve as an emporium to an extensive commerce, than CONSTANTINOPLE. Situated on the confines of EUROPE and ASIA, between the MEDITERRANEAN and the EUXINE, surrounded by fertile provinces, the capital of a vast empire, CONSTANTINOPLE would see pass within its walls the productions of the EAST and of the WEST, as well as those of the NORTH and of the SOUTH. The caravans of ASIA and the ships of EUROPE would succeed each other without interruption, for the purpose of effecting exchanges advantageous to all nations \*.

But, in the present state of affairs, this commerce is very limited. The industry of the inhabitants is confined to the simple wants of the city, and its territory is so little cultivated that it affords no article of exportation. Nevertheless, the neighbouring countries are so fertile and so productive, that they supply not only the numerous inhabitants of the capital, but permit the French merchants to export a sufficiency to pay for one half of the value of the merchandise which they receive from MARSEILLES. A part of these commodities passes through the town, the other is immediately shipped at RODOSTO, at MUNDANIA, at the DARDANELLES, and at the harbour of ENOS.

\* If the BOSPHORUS and the HELLESPONT belonged to an industrious, civilized power, if they made a part of a vast empire, CONSTANTINOPLE would necessarily become the metropolis of the world.

In speaking here only of the export-trade, my object is to make known the most useful natural productions of every country that I shall visit, and the commodities of which European commerce may have availed itself. At the end of this work I shall present a general picture of the import-trade which FRANCE carries on with all the LEVANT. I shall publish, at another time, those articles of natural history which have not been treated of, or are little known.

*Wool.*

Wool forms the principal article of exportation from CONSTANTINOPLE, and the second from all the LEVANT. It is estimated that the price of the wools which the French merchants send to MARSEILLES from CONSTANTINOPLE, RODOSTO, the DARDANELLES, and ENOS, amounts, one year with another, to 1,500,000 livres (*circa* 62,499l. sterling). This value has sometimes risen to upwards of 2,000,000 (83,333l. sterling). They come from the environs of the BOSPHORUS, from the PROPONTIS, and from the HELLESPOINT, as well as from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, BESSARABIA, and the southern coasts of the BLACK SEA. The slaughter-houses of the capital alone furnish a somewhat considerable quantity.

In TURKEY are bred two sorts of sheep, that with a broad tail, and that with a common tail. The former is the larger, its fleece is less fine, and its tail receives such a quantity of fat, that it sometimes weighs upwards of ten pounds. The wool of the plain-tailed sheep of BULGARIA, and of BESSARABIA, which comes to CONSTANTINOPLE by way of VARNA, or which passes through ADRIANOPLE, in order to be shipped at the harbour of ENOS, is the most esteemed. The wools of BOSNIA are reckoned to be of a quality superior to all those of the LEVANT: they are conveyed on the back of mules or horses, to SPALATRO, ZERA, and RAGUSA, whence they go by sea to VENICE. The wools of WALLACHIA and of the North of SERVIA are generally spread through all GERMANY.

All

All the wools of TURKEY are, in general, of an indifferent or of a bad quality, and little fit for the manufacture of fine plain cloths. Nevertheless, when they are picked and mixed with the fine wools of SPAIN and ROUSSILLON, the traders of LANGUEDOC find means to make with them first and second *londrins* which they send to MARSEILLES, and thence to all the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, where a considerable consumption of them is made.

*Camel's Hair.*

In the cold countries of ASIA MINOR and of PERSIA, camels have, during the winter, a tolerable abundance of a fine, silky wool, which falls every year at the beginning of the summer. It is known by the French in trade, under the improper name of *laine de chevron*. The most esteemed is brought from PERSIA by the caravans of ERIVAN, TIFLIS, ERZERUM, and TOCAT. There is some of three qualities: the black, the red, and the gray. The black is the dearest, and the gray is worth only half the price of the red.

Some comes annually to MARSEILLES by way of ALEPPO, SMYRNA, and CONSTANTINOPLE. This last city expedites from eighty to a hundred bales weighing about three hundred pounds the bale. SMYRNA and ALEPPO send a quantity much more considerable.

This wool is employed in the manufacture of hats: it is purchased by all the European nations that trade to the LEVANT. The French, however, are those who draw the most of it, and make of it the greatest consumption. The English employ but a small quantity of the black, which they procure at SMYRNA.

This camel's hair must not be confounded with another wool longer, more silky, and finer which is found in PERSIA, and which is produced in  
plenty

plenty by a she-goat on the mountains of KERMÁN. I shall have occasion to speak of it elsewhere.

*Goat's Hair.*

On the hills and mountains of the environs of ANGORA, is bred a goat smaller than ours, with pendulous ears and short legs, whose white fleece, long and very fine, is carefully spun by the inhabitants of the country, and partly employed by them in the manufacturing of the stuffs known under the name of *ferges*, *camlets*, and *chalis* of ANGORA. The French have several factories in this town, for the purchase of the thread; and although this trade has for some time past been carried on through SMYRNA rather than through CONSTANTINOPLE, nevertheless, several bales of it pass through this latter city, which the French merchants dispatch to MARSEILLES.

Besides the goat's hair of ANGORA, there is also known in trade that of BEIBAZAR, which lies fifteen or twenty leagues to the westward on the road of BURSA. The former is more esteemed than the latter; it is finer, more supple, and more easy to be wrought; but that of BEIBAZAR is whiter, because the inhabitants of this town are in the habit of soaping and washing the hair before they spin it.

The ANGORA goats have much affinity, as to the fineness of their hair, to those of KERMÁN and those of CACHEMIRE. Both of them inhabit elevated places, cold in winter and very warm in summer; both are taken great care of, combed, and frequently washed by the shepherds who guard them.

*Cotton.*

Cotton is not cultivated at CONSTANTINOPLE nor on the shores of the BLACK SEA: the climate is too cold. It is only in the south and west part  
of

of the PROPONTIS, in the environs of the HELLESPOINT, that the culture of this valuable vegetable begins. Cotton is the most plentiful merchandise of the LEVANT, and that which the French draw in the greatest quantity. The merchants of CONSTANTINOPIE dispatch annually from GALLIPOLI, from the DARDANELLES, and from ENOS, about six hundred and fifty bales, estimated at 125,000 livres (*circa* 5,208l. sterling).

Neither are the white spun cotton and the red dyed spun cotton of ADRIANOPIE a very important article of the export-trade of CONSTANTINOPIE: their value scarcely exceeds 40,000 livres, while from SMYRNA alone, MARSEILLES draws upwards of 2,000,000 of livres of spun cotton half white, half dyed red, and to the amount of 5,400,000 of livres of cotton wool: the greater part of the other sea-port towns of the LEVANT furnish more or less of this last article.

Formerly the red spun cotton of ADRIANOPIE enjoyed a very great reputation; but, for some time past, a preference is given to that of LARISSA in GREECE, and to those of the environs of SMYRNA and of some towns of the interior of ASIA MINOR. Means have also been found within a short time, in our French manufactories, to give spun cotton a red colour full as beautiful and as durable as that which is given to it in TURKEY. The red spun cottons of GREECE do not come into FRANCE; they pass by the ADRIATIC, to VENICE and TRIESTE, whence they spread all over GERMANY.

*Buffaloes' hides.*

The buffalo is in very great plenty throughout the EAST: it serves for tillage: it is harnessed to the waggons; it is made to turn the stones of mills, and wheels for the raising of water from wells. It is stronger than the ox, and more generally employed. Although it delights more particularly in

aquatic or marshy places, on the banks of large and small rivers, it nevertheless thrives every where, and acquires a size above that of oxen.

Its flesh is scarcely fit to be eaten: it is tougher, less savoury than that of the ox, and is almost always accompanied by an odour of musk which renders it by no means agreeable. It seldom happens that the Orientals subsist on it; they universally prefer the sheep, whose flesh is much more delicate than in our countries. The milk of the female is abundant and well-tasted; but the butter preserves a smell somewhat disagreeable, to which, however, one is soon reconciled.

The hide of the buffalo is much thicker and far more substantial than that of the ox; it weighs from eighty to a hundred pounds, and even more. A great quantity of them comes to CONSTANTINOPLE from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, BESSARABIA, WALLACHIA, and MOLDAVIA, and very few from the interior of ASIA MINOR. The hides of the males are more esteemed than those of the females; they are thicker, stronger, and much heavier. There pass annually to MARSEILLES five or six thousand of them, the price of which, one with another, is 15 livres or 2 shillings and 6 pence sterling. ANCONA, LEGHORN, and MESSINA also consume a rather large quantity. The Orientals content themselves with salting those which are intended for MARSEILLES and ANCONA; while those which are carried to LEGHORN and MESSINA have been dressed and tanned with the cup of the Velani oak.

Those hides, dressed and tanned at GRASSE in the department of the VAR, with different substances, and among others with myrtle, are very thick and very strong, have a greenish colour, and are employed by the country-people for soles which last twice or thrice as long as those of the best ox-hides.

There are also dispatched to MARSEILLES two or three thousand ox and cow hides not much esteemed. The value of the ox-hide does not exceed 1 livre 50 centimes, and that of the cow 1 livre. They come from the shores of the BLACK SEA.

*Buffaloes' tongues.*

The smoked buffalo's tongue, which is prepared in ROMANIA, is held in tolerable estimation: a great consumption is made of this article at CONSTANTINOPLE. Seven or eight hundred are exported every year to MARSEILLES. The Italians also purchase a great quantity. The preparation of them consists in their being salted and exposed for some time to the slow and continual action of smoke.

*Hare's skin.*

The hare is so common throughout ASIA MINOR, ROMANIA, and BULGARIA, that it is pursued for its skin, and there are dispatched from ADRIANOPLE, BURSA, and CONSTANTINOPLE, for MARSEILLES alone, from three to four hundred bales, estimated at from 4 to 5000 livres.

The duty in the LEVANT, levied on goods exported, is discharged by the sellers; but as a bale of hares' skins is sometimes furnished by several persons, and as the custom-house officer would experience difficulties in the collection of the duties, in order to put a stop to the complaints of the PORTE and to the vexations to which the merchants were exposed in this respect, it was resolved, under the embassy of M. DE ST. PRIEST, that it should, in future, be the purchasers who should pay the duties on this merchandize, at the rate of a parat or a fous per oke (the oke weighs forty ounces and a half).

*Turkey leather or Morocco.*

The manufactories of morocco of GALLIOLI, of the DARDANELLES, and of some towns of ASIA MINOR are the most renowned of the LEVANT. They

dress the skins of the she and he goats killed in the capital, and those which are dispatched from ROMANIA and the interior of ASIA. Almost all the towns of TURKEY also manufacture some, because the consumption of them is every where considerable. The Turks, as is well known, wear no other shoe-leather than morocco : the black and the violet serve for the Jews and the Armenians. The Greeks employ more generally the red : this is also the colour of the janizaries and of the common people. The rich Mussulmans, both men and women, all wear yellow shoes. Yellow is strictly prohibited to tributary subjects, such as the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews. Amongst them there are none but those who are attached to the legations and to the consulates of foreign powers, or who are specially protected by a barat, that can adorn themselves with this privileged colour.

It is said that the Turks learnt from the Algerines, to dye morocco red, which is known to be very beautiful among them, and for which they employ madder root, kermes, and a very little cochineal.

Their yellow morocco is not inferior in beauty to the red. In quality it is generally superior, because in the manufactories the skins which appear the best are selected, in order to be dyed the colour reserved for the Mussulmans.

The common moroccos are sold for 2 livres 50 centimes a piece. The French merchants dispatch annually from CONSTANTINOPE, twelve or fifteen hundred. The other European nations also purchase a small quantity.

According to the instructions which were given to us before our departure, we made some efforts to learn the proceedings which are employed in the dressing and in the dyeing of morocco : we offered money in order to be permitted to follow the process made use of in the manufactories ; but we  
found

found every where a resistance of which we did not imagine the Turks capable. Although we entered several times into their manufactories, it was impossible for us to discover whether it is to the quality of the skins which they employ, or to their proceedings, that we must attribute the beauty of the morriscos of the LEVANT. Among the substances which we perceived, are lime, sumac, the galnut, the cup of the Velani oak, dog's dung, madder root, cochineal, kermes, the rind of the pomegranate, and the seed of a rhamnus different from that which yields the seed of AVIGNON.

*Silk.*

Before the troubles of PERSIA, the caravans brought to CONSTANTINOPLE and to SMYRNA a great deal of silk from GUILAN, CHIRVAN, and ADERBEJAN, which the French and the English were eager to purchase; but, for some time past, these silks go into RUSSIA by the CASPIAN SEA, and a part passes thence into ENGLAND by the BALTIC, as I shall have occasion to mention when I shall speak of the commerce of PERSIA with RUSSIA.

None but the silks of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, and BULGARIA are at this day known at CONSTANTINOPLE. Those of BURSA are the most abundant and the most esteemed; they are almost all white; and their thread is fine and tolerably supple. This silk supplies the numerous manufactories of the town, those of the capital, and those of SCIO; some even goes to ALEPPO and to DAMASCUS; and, nevertheless, there is every year exported to the amount of 2 or 300,000 livres. The French have a house established there: the English send thither factors when they wish to make purchases, and the merchants of TUNIS and ALGIERS also come thither to provide themselves every year.

The environs of NICOMEDIA, NICEA, and all the country situated between OLYMPUS and the PROPONTIS, are covered with white mulberry-trees cultivated

vated with care, and with a sufficient degree of intelligence. The inhabitants prefer keeping them dwarfs, in order to strip them more easily of their leaves.

The silk of ADRIANOPLE and BULGARIA is almost all white, and in point of quality, approaches that of BURSA. It has been tolerably abundant there for some years past, and especially since a considerable number of the inhabitants of BURSA have come thither to plant a great many mulberry-trees, and apply themselves to the rearing of silk-worms.

This tree does not grow on the other side of the DANUBE; but it thrives very well in the CRIMEA; which leads us to presume that shortly that fertile country, under an enlightened government, will produce silk as easily as wine, and that we shall at the same time see there almost all the productions of EUROPE.

#### *Wax.*

So great a quantity of wax comes from all the coasts of the BLACK SEA, of the PROPONTIS, and of the HELLESPONT, as well as from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, WALLACHIA, and MOLDAVIA, that the French merchants established at CONSTANTINOPLE dispatch of it every year to the value of 300,000 livres (*circa* 12,800*l.* sterling). A great deal is sent to GENOA, LEGHORN, and VENICE. The English and the Dutch also purchase some, and there is, besides, a great consumption made of it in the Greek and Armenian churches, and in the houses of all the individuals of the country, especially during the month of the ramazan.

The wax of the interior of ASIA MINOR is conveyed by the caravans, to ALEPPO and to SMYRNA.

*Box.*

Box is abundant in some places of the south coast of the BLACK SEA: there comes some from BARTHIN, a small town situated at the mouth of the *PARTHENIUS*; but the finest is to be found on Mount CAUCASUS, and comes to CONSTANTINOPLE by the ships which bring Georgian, Circassian, and Mingrelian female slaves. There is sent to MARSEILLES every year to the value of 12,000 livres (500l. sterling).

*Copper.*

Such a quantity of copper is drawn from the mines which are situated to the south of TREBISOND, in the environs of TOCAT, and in several places of ASIA MINOR, that TURKEY is able to pay with this metal for a part of the merchandize which she draws from INDIA. There comes annually to MARSEILLES, from CONSTANTINOPLE, from SMYRNA, and from the ports of SYRIA, to the value of from 12 to 1300,000 livres. A great deal also passes into ITALY, and the Turks make a very great consumption of it for their artillery which is all of brass, for their table and kitchen utensils, for their mangals, their chandeliers, and others.

There likewise comes to MARSEILLES to the value of 5 or 6,000 livres of copper coffee-pots, made at TREBISOND, or in the environs of that town.

*Orpiment.*

From the interior of ASIA MINOR is also drawn a very considerable quantity of orpiment. This mineral substance, mixed with a bolary earth, is employed throughout TURKEY, at the baths, as a depilatory for men and women of all conditions.

Independently of the great consumption which is made of it in the country, there is annually exported to MARSEILLES to the amount of about 2,000 livres. The Italians take of it to a more considerable value.

*Hart's horn.*

The stag is rather common in the forests of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE. There is annually sent to MARSEILLES, to the value of 200 livres of its horns.

*Poultry.*

The finest furs come from RUSSIA and POLAND: some are likewise drawn from GEORGIA, from CIRCASSIA, from the CRIMEA, from WALLACHIA, and from all the north side of the BLACK SEA. Those of the black fox and the sable martin are the most esteemed: the former are at a price which cannot be afforded by private persons; the latter cost sometimes as much as 2 or 3,000 livres each. FRANCE fortunately dispenses with an article of merchandise which would considerably injure its manufactories. The few skins of this sort which she consumes come to her from the north of EUROPE and from AMERICA. There is sent from the LEVANT little more than to the value of 4 or 500 livres of zerdova or common martin's tails.

*Horse hair.*

Horse hair is an article which amounts annually to 4,000 livres (166l. 13s. 4d. sterling). It almost all comes from BULGARIA and BESSARABIA.

*Galls.*

Although the oak which produces galls begins to be found in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, this article more particularly concerns the commerce of SMYRNA, ALEPPO, and CYPRUS. I shall speak of it elsewhere.

*Corn.*

The Ottoman government, which knows, more than any other, how dangerous it is to suffer the people to be in want of subsistence, has at all times taken care to supply the capital with provisions, and even to make sacrifices, when necessary, in order to keep bread at a low price: before the reign of SELIM, the oke cost no more than three parats. But since the government has imprudently made a monopoly of corn, the oke is sold for five or six parats; which creates murmurs among the people, who do not think themselves well governed except when commodities of the first necessity are at a very moderate price.

The corn countries are obliged to furnish the capital with a certain quantity at their expense, the price of which is fixed and paid by the PORTE, according to the harvests and other circumstances.

The government also sends commissaries to VOLO, to SALONICA, and into some districts of GREECE, for the purchase of corn. The firman which fixes the price of it, and which regulates the quantity that is to be delivered, is read publicly at the mékemé, and the proprietors are bound to conform themselves to it, each in proportion to his property. The commissaries defray all the expenses of warehouse-room, carriage, &c. as far as CONSTANTINOPLE, in consideration of a determined profit: for instance, if they have orders to purchase at 50 parats the kilo, they are allowed 70, and so in proportion. They always receive in advance the money necessary for the purchase which they are ordered to make.

The government likewise fixes the price at which bakers and private persons are to buy the corn which it causes to be distributed to them; and it reserves to itself a profit of fifty or sixty per cent. It is asserted that the

produce of this monopoly amounts annually to ten thousand purses or 10,000,000 of our livres.

At CONSTANTINOPLE are made three sorts of bread : the one, called *pidé fodala*, or Turkish bread, is flat, ill baked, and tolerably white ; the other *somoun* or Armenian bread, is raised, rounded, worse baked, more black, and of an inferior quality to the other. The third is called *frangeole* ; it is small, oblong, and kneaded nearly like that which we eat in FRANCE. The bakers of the country add to the former, barley flour ; the second is a mixture of wheat, barley, rye, and millet ; the third is seldom made with pure wheat ; the European bakers who furnish it, eager to enrich themselves, well know that those who are accustomed to eat good bread, will prefer theirs, because it is whiter, better baked, and above all better kneaded. It is sold for ten, twelve, and even fourteen parats the oke. As it is supposed to be made for none but the Europeans, the police does not tax it, but suffers it to be sold at the price which the baker chooses ; the latter only taking care to furnish it of the best quality to the ambassadors whom they serve, and of whom they hold their privilege.

In the seraglio is made a fourth sort of bread, with which we are not acquainted. It is said to be very white, tolerably good, though worse kneaded and less baked than the frangeoles. Private persons are also in the habit of making bread, the quality of which approaches more or less to that of the bakers.

The corn of ROMANIA, of BULGARIA, and all that which is drawn in abundance from the environs of the DANUBE, is reckoned to be of a quality superior to all that of the Ottoman Empire : that too which comes from the CRIMEA and from TAGANROFF, situated towards the mouth of the DON, is much esteemed. That of VOLO, of SALONICA, and of the MOREA is reckoned to

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be of the second quality : next comes that of SYRIA and CYPRUS. The corn of EGYPT is considered as inferior to all the others.

Although the exportation of wheat is prohibited, means are found sometimes in the DARDANELLES, to ship one or more cargoes of it coming from the western and northern coasts of the BLACK SEA : vessels also load with it at RODOSTA, in TROAS, at VOLO, and in the Gulf of ENOS. It may be procured in EGYPT, in SYRIA, on the coast of NATOLIA, and in some other parts of the MOREA ; but pecuniary sacrifices must always be made, and suitable precautions taken not to irritate the people, or give too much dissatisfaction to the PORTE.

FRANCE ought not to forget that, during the revolution, when she was threatened, from all quarters, with the most terrible famine, the Ottoman government permitted several cargoes of corn to be shipped, and tolerated a greater number, though wheat was not more plentiful in TURKEY in that year than in others. This permission, contrary to Ottoman customs and policy, proceeded, at that period, from the good intentions of the government in regard to us, and from the extremely wise conduct of the agent of the Republic resident at the PORTE.

*Alimentary substances.*

CONSTANTINOPLE draws from PHILIPPOLIS a tolerably large quantity of rice less esteemed than that of EGYPT : it is also cultivated in some parts of ASIA MINOR, and several cargoes of it arrive every year from DAMIETTA : the latter is the finest and the best of all. Cherries, plums, pears, and apples arrive every day from the southern coast of the BLACK SEA, as well as chestnuts, hazel-nuts, and walnuts. Apricots, peaches, grapes, figs, musk-melons, cucumbers, water-melons, young pumpkins, melongenas, esculent hibiscus, and various species of herbs come from the neighbouring villages, from the

coasts of the PROPONTIS, and from the west and south parts of the BLACK SEA. The Island of SCIO furnishes oranges, lemons, bergamot-citrons, pomegranates, and some prunes; it also furnishes conserves of flowers of roses and oranges, the use of which is so general and so frequent in TURKEY. The best raisins come from NATOLIA, those of the ARCHIPELAGO are, in general, too much dried up and of little value. The raisins are brought from the environs of SMYRNA.

The fruit of the *diopiros lotus* or European date-plum, cultivated in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, CERASONTE, and SINOPE, is eaten fresh: there is also made of it a marmalade which the Orientals esteem: it appeared to me not very agreeable. MITYLENE furnishes the salted olives which, with caviare and salt fish, the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews make the principal article of their food. The chich-pea and maize which are cultivated every where, are ground into flour or simply roasted: the women and children have almost always some in their pockets.

From all the coasts of the BLACK SEA are, brought honey, butter and tallow. The first also comes from GREECE, and from a few islands of the ARCHIPELAGO: the consumption of the second is so great, that the government takes care that some should arrive from all quarters: European TURKEY and ASIA MINOR furnish it in abundance. MITYLENE and CANDIA send their oils: TENEDOS also exports its wine to the Europeans, Greeks, and Armenians: the Jews make theirs at SCUTARI, at the DARDANELLES, and in the environs.

The almonds which are drawn from some countries of NATOLIA and from some islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, are not sufficient for the great consumption of the capital; FRANCE makes them an article of trade rather important. But SYRIA and NATOLIA send a vast quantity of the kernels of the stone-pine tree which the Orientals put into most of their ragouts, and of

which they make, with sugar, delicacies in very great request. From DAMASCUS are drawn dried apricots, very sweet, which are also put into ragouts, or eaten boiled in the manner of stewed fruit. The dates of EGYPT and the pistachio-nuts of ALEPPO are too dear to be within the purchase of the common people; the latter especially are reserved for children and for the wives of the rich.

I shall not here speak of some fruits of little value, such as the medlar, the cornil, and that of the *elæagnus* or Bohemian olive-tree, which come from the environs of the capital, or from the interior of ASIA MINOR.

The best cheese of the LEVANT is that of CANDIA: a great deal comes from BULGARIA, WALLACHIA, and the environs of the PROPONTIS; but it is, in general, bad and very little esteemed, because it is made without skill, and because the custom obtains of drawing the butter from all the milk which is intended for cheese. The *yougourt* or sour curdled milk does not at all please strangers: it is, nevertheless, a wholesome food to which a person is soon reconciled, and which he then eats with pleasure: it is found in abundance throughout the EAST.

There comes from the northern coast of the BLACK SEA, a prodigious quantity of caviare and salted fish. Caviare is nothing more than sturgeon's spawn salted and packed up in large casks. The consumption which is made of it in CONSTANTINOPLE and in all the towns of the Ottoman Empire, is immense. It is the Greeks and the Armenians who eat the most, on account of their fasts and their lents. The Jews also live on it very frequently, because this aliment is of little value. The inhabitants also make use of various salted fishes, some of which come from the BLACK SEA, and the others from the environs of PATRAS. Those from the BLACK SEA are cut into  
thongs,

thongs, salted and dried; the others are whole, dried or placed in casks with pickle. Excellent mullets salted are likewise brought from the Gulf of ENOS.

At CONSTANTINOPLE there is, under the superintendence of the PORTE, a considerable establishment in which a great number of workmen are employed in burning Arabian coffee, and in pounding it in large marble mortars. It is distributed in powder to the Turkish coffee-house keepers and dealers, according to the calls that they make for it. Private persons also have the power, in consideration of a trifling tax, of carrying coffee to this establishment, in order to have it roasted and pounded: but it is prohibited, under very severe penalties to mix with Mocha the WEST INDIA coffee, which is cheaper and less esteemed than the other. This prevents not MARSEILLES alone from furnishing the capital to the value of a million of our livres every year. True it is that in BULGARIA, BLESSARABIA, and in the environs of the DANUBE, WEST INDIA coffee is preferred to that of YEMEN, and that a great deal of it passes into those countries by the way of CONSTANTINOPLE.

MOCHA coffee is brought from ALEXANDRIA every year by the caravels of the Grand Signior: there arrives at the same time a tolerably large quantity of sugar from EGYPT, which the common people prefer to that of the Europeans, because it is cheaper, and sweetens, it is said, better than the other: it is not so well refined, and it preserves a part of its moscovade.

*Combustibles; wood for carpenter's and joiner's work, and timber for ship-building.*

All the wood used for fuel and cooking in the houses of private persons, in some manufactories and especially for the baths, comes from the south part of the PROPONTIS and the coasts of the BLACK SEA, situated from the Bos-

PHORUS as far as SINOPE. It is more particularly oak that is burnt: for this purpose are also employed the holm green oak, the arbutus, and almost all the trees of which I shall presently give the enumeration. From those countries is drawn a greater quantity of charcoal, because, in TURKEY, the inhabitants do not warm themselves at the fire of chimnies, as I have said elsewhere, but at that of tandours and mangals, for which charcoal only is required. The best is made of the oak and the holm, some is also made of the pine, the fir, and the arbutus.

The countries of which I have just spoken, covered with beeches, horn-beams, oaks, elms, walnut-trees, cherry-trees, pear-trees, pines, firs, chefnut-trees, plane-trees, and lime-trees, furnish the capital, in profusion, with all the wood necessary for joiner's work and for the frame-work of the houses which the inhabitants are accustomed to build with wood; and, indeed, the consumption of it is prodigious in an immense city, where frequent fires induce the necessity of rebuilding continually the houses which the flames have destroyed. There are daily arriving beams of oak, pine and fir, joists of oak and beech, for the frame-work, and planks of chefnut-tree for the roofs of houses; thin planks of walnut-tree, plane-tree, cherry-tree, pear-tree, lime-tree, oak, beech, ash, pine, and fir for joiner's work; pump-pipes and troughs in elm, pine, fir, oak, &c. &c.

There also arrives from the same countries, a great deal of ship-timber for the arsenal, and spars for masts and yards which are not inferior to those of the north of EUROPE. The PORTE also draws excellent timber for ship-building from MOLDAVIA, which is shipped at GALAS. There is a great deal in POLAND and in South RUSSIA, of which the French government had made trials some time before the revolution, with which it had been satisfied, and of which it would, perhaps, have made use, notwithstanding the clamours of some persons interested in decrying it.

SINOPE is the town of the Ottoman Empire the most within reach of ship-timber, and that in whose dock-yards at present the greatest activity prevails. Oak is extremely abundant in the environs: its wood, more handsome for joiner's work, is as good and as solid for ship-building, as that of our southern departments.

The exportation of timber fit for the construction of line-of-battle ships is strictly prohibited at SINOPE. An officer of the PORTE is incessantly employed in causing to be felled, squared, and conveyed to the arsenal such wood as he judges fit for the service of the navy. For the construction of merchant-vessels, private persons can dispose only of that which he rejects or cannot employ.

The south coast of the BLACK SEA also furnishes a very large quantity of tar, flax, and hemp for the dock yard at SINOPE, and for the arsenal of CONSTANTINOPLE. Flax and hemp are also drawn from WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA.

CHAPTER XX.

*Of the droguemans and barataires.—Of the marriage of the merchants.—Of the French workmen settled in the Levant.—Of the caravan or carrying-trade in the Levant.*

THE class of droguemans deserves the most serious attention on the part of the French government, since it is on their probity, on their intelligence, and on their civism that depend the success of the negociations which are intrusted to them and the favourable issue of the private affairs with the management of which they are charged. It has long been occupied about them without ever having attained the object which it had in view. It had imagined, perhaps, that education was to supply the place of other qualities, and that it was sufficient for a man, in other respects intelligent, to know perfectly French, Turkish, and Arabic, to be a good drogueman. A preference was given to young men born in TURKEY, because they had a better pronunciation of the oriental languages and a greater facility in speaking them correctly. They were made to spend a few years in PARIS, in order to learn French, and the principles of the Turkish and Arabic languages. They were sent to finish their studies in a school of Capuchins established at CONSTANTINOPLE: thence they were scattered over the different sea-port towns of the LEVANT, and those who shewed the most capacity were afterwards sent for to reside with the ambassador.

Through an inconsiderate condescension, almost all the French droguemans had been taken from four or five families originally foreign, or for a long time past settled in the LEVANT. These men, born in TURKEY, descended from Greek or Armenian mothers, shewed us, at the period of the revolution,

## TRAVELS IN THE

tion, how little reliance ought to be placed on persons of their stamp. Although they were indebted to FRANCE for their education, their profession, and their fortune, they hesitated not to go over into the service of our enemies, and to transmit to them the knowledge which they had acquired among us. Some even have been accused of having carried off the depots, and having plundered the chanceries; all, in a word, proved, on this memorable occasion, that, in the sequel, the important functions of drogusman ought to be intrusted to none but real Frenchmen, to men born in the bosom of FRANCE, and brought up and educated in her manners and customs.

I do not think that one ought to assimilate the man born in TURKEY, of a father who has long since renounced his country, of a mother a subject of the Grand Signior, of a Greek or Armenian woman who detests our customs, and ridicules our manners to him who, born in FRANCE, shall have imbibed with his milk, ideas of probity, morality, and honour. Five or six years which the former shall have passed in PARIS for his education, will not be able to destroy the impressions that he shall have received in his youth. Accustomed to live with degraded men, surrounded by relations whose mind is tarnished by flattery, educated in the school of vice, five or six years will not be sufficient for elevating his mind, for engraving in an indelible manner in his heart the love of virtue, the thirst of glory, and devotion to his country.

The reader will, perhaps, be surprised that I consider a man born in the SERVANT as less fitted for the social virtues, as less qualified to discharge functions which require probity and honour. In the first place, experience too frequently informs us that the drogusman, born and bred in TURKEY, makes no scruple of sacrificing the interests of private persons, and those of the government, when he finds any advantage in so doing. It would be shameful to say, but perhaps not very difficult to prove, that the agent falls sometimes into the snares which the drogusman contrives not to spread for him.

Too frequently the latter has forced the other to flatter by his manoeuvres, or seduced him by the gold which he has had the address to present to him opportunely and with caution.

Besides, what can be expected from a man brought up in a country where the idea of probity and of duties is attached only to the exterior practices of a religious worship, where customs authorise a person to cause himself to be paid for the smallest service, the smallest undertaking; where justice is sold, where false evidence is paid for, where murder is redeemed, where every thing, in a word, is trafficked for without scruple, without shame, and without remorse?

The embassy of CONSTANTINOPLE is no longer respectable that of the other courts. In these the ambassador conducts affairs himself: he can develop all his talents; he can bring into action all the resources of his genius: but, at CONSTANTINOPLE, he depends solely on his drogoman: if the man whom he employs be weak or unskilful, the ambassador is no longer any thing more with the Porte than a fool or a common man. If the drogoman be a knave, the ambassador is deceived; he sees the clearest affairs take a perplexed turn, become confused, grow dark, and present every day new incidents: their progress, according to circumstances, will be retarded by supposed obstacles. Difficulties and embarrassments will arise at every Council at length the ambassador disgusted, will renounce his projects and abandon his undertakings.

If the drogoman, on the contrary, had the patriotism, the great talents, and the probity which we suppose in an ambassador, and if the latter, with a pure heart and a sound judgment, had only ordinary abilities, the interests of the nation would be lodged in better hands. The progress of affairs would not be clogged: the Porte would be seen to treat with confidence, loyalty, and frankness; the firmans for the punishment of delinquents, in the sea-

ports of the LEVANT, would be expeditiously delivered, and would leave no doubt, no ambiguity in their dispositions : our commerce would be effectually protected ; no Frenchman would ever be outraged or insulted with impunity : the commissaries and agents of the Republic would enjoy the consideration which they merit.

Is there, in the LEVANT, a man of any judgment who has not a thousand times made the same reflections as myself ? Is there one who has not very frequently perceived that the drogueman altered or modified at his pleasure the words which he is charged to transmit ?

It is at MARSEILLES, and not at CONSTANTINOPLE, that we must establish public schools of Greek, Turkish, and Arabic, in order that the young men who are intended for the LEVANT trade, and the mariners who are to pursue the carrying-trade there, may learn the languages of which they will stand in need, if they wish not to be deceived, if they be desirous of conducting business themselves, and of acting according to their own pleasure and without obstacles.

It is expedient to establish another school at PARIS, more particularly destined for the droguemanship, in which should be received none but young men born or brought up in FRANCE. They should there learn not only vulgar Greek, Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, but the language which is consigned in Greek and Arabic books, the Turkish and Persian which are spoken at court, and which are made use of in the acts emanating from the government.

A few years' stay in TURKEY, one or two years' apprenticeship to the commissaries and agents, would be sufficient for the pupil intended for a drogueman to catch the pronunciation, and learn all the turns of the languages for which he will have the most occasion, according as he might propose to  
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serve the capital or the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, GREECE, or SYRIA. Besides, there would be no harm in his preserving a foreign pronunciation: the Mussulman has almost always for the European the respect with which he thinks that he may dispense towards the man who, born in TURKEY, appears to him no more than a slave in disguise.

An infinite number of advantages would result if the drogoumanship were, in the LEVANT, the nursery of the agents and commissaries of the commercial relations: there would necessarily be seen in them more zeal, more information, more attachment, and more probity\*. Business in the sea-port towns of the LEVANT would be better transacted and much more quickly terminated if the commissary were acquainted with the language of the country, if he had learned by a long experience, to know the Mussulmans and all the subjects of the Grand Signior.

But, above all, it would be necessary to obtain from the PORTE that the French drogouman should present himself in an European dress, in a particular uniform, and that he should not be subject to the Turkish customs and ceremonial; for were the drogouman to continue to humble himself before a pacha, a mutselim, a simple writer of the PORTE; were he always to be in fear of the bastinado; were he obliged to offer them submissively his head, to kiss the skirt of their robe, how could he preserve that independence of opinion, that inflexibility of character, that elevation of mind so necessary to a commissary in the LEVANT?

Current affairs of little importance would continue to be transacted by the drogoumans of the country, creatures vile at this day, whose whole oc-

\* Citizen RUFFIN, formerly drogouman, at this day *chargé d'affaires* of the Republic at the PORTE, would furnish us, if it were necessary, with an incontestable proof that the interests of the nation could not sometimes be placed in better hands.

cupation is to avoid the stick of the Turks and to pick up money from those who employ them, but who might be easily turned to account by means of barats wisely granted.

I am not willing to have recourse to those Greeks, to those Armenians, to those opulent Jews who purchase a barat only in order to have a right to wear slippers like those of the Muffulmans, or pay no more than three per cent. for custom-house duties, and who, by that means, place their life and their fortune under the safe-guard of an European power. I consider it as extremely unbecoming and impolitic that an ambassador has it in his power to sell at a very high price his protection to such men, who very frequently expose his credit, who always take up a part of his time, and who bear towards the European merchants a remarkable prejudice.

\* Barats ought to be given gratuitously to those who shall devote themselves to the service of the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, who shall undertake all laborious and disagreeable functions, and who, poor and without interest, will be almost always the agents of the merchants. These men, from whom the commissaries of commercial relations shall be able to cause the barat to be withdrawn because they have not purchased it, shall be obliged to conduct themselves honestly if they wish to preserve it and enjoy the privileges which are attached to it.

Long experience had formerly taught the government, how wise it was to prohibit the merchants and agents whom it employed in the LEVANT, from marrying with the women of the country. This law, which favour and protection sometimes silenced, ought to be restored to vigour and rigorously executed: the interest of the merchant and the advantage of the State alike demand this. It is so much the more necessary, as there exists one in TURKEY, which declares *rayas* or tributary subjects the children of the Europeans who

are born from a Greek or Armenian woman a subject of the Grand Signior.

Independently of the woman, born in the LEVANT, preferring oriental indolence to the cares of a family, and consuming in nonsense, in dress, and in trinkets, considerable sums, she has generally so little attachment and gratitude to him to whom she is indebted for comfort and repose, that, following the example of the Mussulman women, she neglects nothing to purloin from him his savings and deprive him of the means of returning to his own country. The husband, not being able to prevail on his wife to follow him, to renounce sofas, vapour-baths, and customs which she has contracted from her infancy, assumes by degrees the habits of the country. Idleness gets hold of him, old age takes him by surprise, and death carries him off: his family renounce for ever the mother-country. They would even soon forget it, did not their interest invite them to preserve the protection which the father enjoyed.

Droguemans were not generally comprised in this prohibition, because they were, undoubtedly, expatriated for ever; while the merchant was likely to return to FRANCE after twelve, fifteen, or twenty years of labours, and bring back with him the fortune which he would not fail to make in the LEVANT when he conducted himself with intelligence and economy \*.

On arriving at CONSTANTINOPLE and in the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, we were very much surpris'd to find every where a great number of French workmen who had brought into these countries the arts of EUROPE, and who enjoyed, under the protection of the ambassador and the agents of the

\* Young lads were sent to the commercial houses of the LEVANT at the age of fifteen or eighteen: the greater part were book-keepers at twenty-five: ten years were sufficient for them to make a fortune which allowed them to return to FRANCE and there marry.

Republic, the produce of their industry without either paying taxes or imposts. If these workmen and these artists expatriated themselves only in order to acquire riches and return sooner or later to bring them back to their country, if they did not do a considerable injury to the national commerce and industry by teaching the Turks to dispense with us, by establishing our workshops, our manufactories among them, certainly they deserved that an ambassador should procure them the enjoyment of all the advantages granted to merchants.

But how far are they from resembling those estimable men who, removed from their natal land, devote themselves to a painful labour, who consent to pass the prime of their life among barbarians, who see themselves exposed to the poniard of assassins, to fires, to the plague, and to the malignant influence of some marshy countries, with a view of establishing between TURKEY and FRANCE a commerce of barter extremely advantageous, a commerce which enlivens our workshops, increases our population, forms a great number of sailors, diffuses plenty in some places, and comfort every where!

The French workman, by doing a prejudice to his country, drags on in the LEVANT a lingering existence. His profits are very limited, and he very seldom acquires, by persevering labour, and the strictest economy, wherewith to be able to return to his country. The workman, besides, hurried sometimes into gaming-houses and taverns, may, in the sea-port towns of the LEVANT and even at CONSTANTINOPLE, expose the fate of all the French, in a moment of ebriety, or in one of those fits of passion which shall lead him to the commission of an offence somewhat serious.

For his own advantage, the workman ought to be sent back to his own country, unless his stay in the LEVANT be found useful to the ambassador and

to FRANCE, and if he refused to depart, he ought, without his having a right to complain, to be refused a protection which he does not merit.

The ignorance of the Orientals in the art of navigation, and, above all, the fear of Maltese privateers, had in all times induced the Turks to make use of Venetian, Ragusan, and French vessels for the conveyance of their merchandise from one town to another. They also had recourse to the boats of the country; but they then preferred those belonging to the Greeks who had obtained a pass from the archbishops of SYRA and NAXOS.

The French had always in the seas of the LEVANT a great number of vessels solely employed in carrying from one *echelle*\* or sea-port town to the other the merchandise with which they were laden, and from which they derived a tolerably advantageous freight. This carrying-trade, known in the South of FRANCE under the name of *caravane*, was a practical school of navigation, and a rather considerable source of wealth to some towns of ancient PROVENÇE. None were better acquainted with the seas of the LEVANT, used greater expedition in their voyages, and navigated with greater advantage for the traders, than the Provençal mariners. The navigation of the Venetians and Ragusans was extremely slow and timid: it presented more dangers, because they sometimes ran their vessels ashore, by wishing, on the smallest sign of bad weather, to gain a harbour or roadstead.

Independently of the freights which yielded profits to all those who had concurred in the construction, purchase, and outfit of the vessel, the captain never failed to enrich himself sooner or later when he was active, intelligent

\* *Echelle* comes from the Italian word *scala*, because there exist in all the harbours and roadsteads of the LEVANT, in lieu of quays, ladders or wooden steps, which project into the sea for the access of vessels and boats, and for facilitating the embarkation and debarkation of persons and goods.

and frugal, and the sailors themselves, besides their wages, gained a great deal by the small parcels of goods which they carried from MARSEILLES, or which they made up in the LEVANT in going from one sea-port town to another. This last-mentioned profit is very considerable: there is twenty-five per cent. to be gained by choice merchandize. The intelligent seaman who was well acquainted with the LEVANT, did not fail to avail himself of the circumstance. This gain, repeated five or six times in the course of the year, soon doubled and tripled the capital. I have known a great number of sailors who supported at MARSEILLES, at LA CIOTAT, at ST. TROPEZ, or at LA SEINE, a numerous family, and who, besides, procured themselves early in life a competence for the remainder of their days.

A vessel was divided into twenty-four shares or "kirats, and each share might be subdivided according to the intentions of the share-holders. The vessel was to return at the expiration of three years. The profits were divided, according to the account of the captain, between the parties interested, after deducting the expenses which had been incurred for the wages of the crew, and such repairs and refitting as were found necessary.

For some time past it had been perceived that the share-holders gained so much the less, as the captains enriched themselves the more quickly; however, though dishonesty had found its way among the greater part of them, the most shameless even still brought wherewith to keep up in the share-holders the confidence which has always been placed in this kind of speculation. The small towns which I have just mentioned, had by this means acquired a considerable increase; there existed among the inhabitants a degree of comfort which was not to be seen in those that were merely agricultural.

There were reckoned upwards of a hundred vessels employed in this carrying-trade, generally manned each by eight or ten hands, including the captain

and mate. The trade which was regularly carried on from MARSEILLES with all the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, employed four or five hundred. The *caravane*, as is seen, ought therefore to be encouraged at the peace, as well on account of the profits which it procures, as of the practical knowledge which our seamen acquire in the seas of the LEVANT.

*END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.*



TRAVELS  
IN THE  
OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA.



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Page 5 Note †, *for cylindri, formi read cylindriformi*

10 — \*, *for vertia read vertice*

24 Line 9, *del not*

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T R A V E L S  
TO  
C O N S T A N T I N O P L E,  
TO THE ISLANDS  
OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,  
C R E T E.

CHAPTER I.

*Departure from Constantinople for the Gulf of Mundania.—Stay at Ghemlek.—Turkish dock-yard.—Timber for ship-building.—Culture of the land.—Natural history.—Islands of the Propontis.—Gallipoli.—Lampfacus.—Arrival at the Dardanelles.*

EVENTS, which had succeeded each other with rapidity since our departure from PARIS, having made us lose sight of the principal object of our mission, the course which appeared to us the most prudent from the very first day of our arrival in the LEVANT, was to request our recall to FRANCE, or formal authority to quit CONSTANTINOPLE, to direct our steps to the southern shores of the BLACK SEA, to repair through ARMENIA, GEORGIA, GUILAN or CHIVRAN, to the borders of the CASPIAN SEA, then to traverse

PERSIA from north to south, and return to FRANCE by the PERSIAN GULF, BASSORA, BAGDAD, ALEPPO, and SYRIA. For six months, we had been in vain expecting that the envoy extraordinary of the Republic would be authorized to furnish us with the means necessary for the execution of this journey. We felt the most eager impatience to travel over one of the parts of our globe the most interesting, in regard to natural history, geography, ancient and modern history, commerce, &c. when we received an account of the detention of Citizen SEMONVILLE, on the neutral territory of the GRISONS, by one of the powers inimical to FRANCE.

It is very certain that the arrival, at CONSTANTINOPLE, of an ambassador of the Republic had mitigated the fate of the French, calmed their inquietude, rendered the PORTE more circumspect, and relieved us from the suspense in which we had been since our departure from PARIS. Citizen SEMONVILLE, with whom we had conferred several times at MARSEILLES, was acquainted with the views of the government with respect to us; he knew what was the primitive object of our mission; he was not ignorant of all the importance which the executive provisional council attached to our political and commercial relations with the Ottoman Empire, and how many advantages they hoped, in certain circumstances, to derive from a more intimate union with the Turks.

Receiving no answer to the different letters which we had addressed to the government, we resolved to go and spend the winter at the DARDANELLES, or in the Islands of GREECE, far from the agitations and intrigues which the various shades of political opinions had produced among the French, and of which we had, in spite of ourselves, been witnesses. What determined us to take this course, was that we should be thence enabled to return to FRANCE if we were recalled, or to repair to whatever country of the Ottoman Empire the government should in future think it necessary to send us.

We

We received, from Citizen DESCORCHES, all the assistance that his precarious situation allowed him to afford, and we left CONSTANTINOPLE on the 6th of Frimaire, year II, (26th of November, 1794,) on board a Ragusan vessel, freighted by a French merchant. The captain had orders to go and anchor in the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in order to take in there some bales of silk which were to be sent to him from BURSA. Thence he was to set sail for SMYRNA, and leave us, in passing, at the DARDANELLES, where we had an intention of making some stay.

The day was fine, the temperature of the air very mild, and the sea perfectly smooth: the wind, which had been to the south for eight days, had died away, and appeared likely to shift to the north: the captain took advantage of the first favourable breath in order to get under sail. We departed from GALATA at noon, and came to an anchor at sunset, off the village of PRINKIROS. The wind being faint and variable, we remained at this anchorage two days, during which we amused ourselves in killing, from on board, some divers, in shooting, in the island, woodcocks and red partridges, and in gathering, for our collection, seeds, lichens, and a few late plants.

The wind having settled at north north-east, we set sail, at seven o'clock in the morning, for the Gulf of MUNDANIA: at ten, we were a league from the coast situated between this gulf and that of NICOMEDIA, and at noon we had doubled Cape BOUZ-BOURNOU. This coast is beautiful, diversified, and rather mountainous; the soil appeared fertile and wooded; we perceived fields laid down in corn, a few flocks of sheep, and several inconsiderable villages. After having doubled the cape, the wind till then favourable, was likely to be contrary to us; it obliged us to ply to windward a part of the night. We had some difficulty to get to an anchor half a league from the village of GHEMLEK, at two cables' length from the south coast

The anchorage, at the head of the gulf, is excellent; the anchors hold well every where; but, in winter, it is most prudent to approach the dock-yard situated to the south, and to bring up at a cable and a half or two cables' length from the shore; for if a vessel came to an anchor on the side of the village, she would be exposed to a heavier sea with a westerly wind somewhat strong, and might run the risk of being driven on the rocks which skirt that coast, if her cables were too old or too weak.

The village, called *Kios* by the Greeks, and *GHEMLEK* by the Turks, is situated in the form of an amphitheatre, at the head of the gulf, towards the north part: it is built on the ruins of the ancient *Cius*, and its population appears to be about two thousand souls. The inhabitants, for the most part Greeks, are occupied in the culture of the land: few among them are mariners; several are employed against their will, as workmen, since the Turks have established, a quarter of a league from that spot, a dock-yard for the construction of ships of the line. Here, on our arrival, was an eighty gun ship almost finished, the building of which had been directed by a French shipwright.

What determines the Turks to build part of their line-of-battle ships at the head of this gulf, is the facility of procuring ship-timber from the mountain, which borders on *OLYMPUS*, from those which lie between the Gulfs of *MUNDANIA* and *NICOMEDIA*, and from those situated to the south of *Lake ASCANIUS*. Two species of oak and two species of fir are employed; the former serve for the keel, the ribs or frames, and the sheathing; the latter likewise serve for the frames, and for all the pieces of the inside of the vessel.

The two species of oak which serve for ship-building, are the *hairy-cupped* oak *PLATE XII.* and the *cluster* oak. The former, which appears to be the *quercus*

*quercus cerris* of LINNÆUS, is most common towards TOCAT, SINOPE, and TREBISOND. It is that which is brought to the arsenal of CONSTANTINOPLE from the southern shores of the BLACK SEA, and which is most commonly employed for the frame-work of houses. It is also met with in a great part of ASIA MINOR and SYRIA. It grows to a considerable height and furnishes an excellent wood. Its leaves are deeply notched, smooth, of a dark green on their upper side, a little whitish and pubescent on their under. The scales of the cup are in elongated filaments, terminated in a point\*.

The *cluster* or *stalk-fruited* oak is more common than the other in the environs of MUNDANIA and CONSTANTINOPLE. It rises to a great height, assumes a fine stem, and furnishes a very hard wood. This tree, whose foliage differs little, at first sight, from that of the *quercus cerris* or TURKEY oak, is nevertheless remarkable for its elongated fruit, borne on a slender pedicle, two or three inches in length†.

The Turks commonly make use of the *pinus pinea* or stone pine, and of a species which approaches to the *laricio* of the Corsicans. The former is common towards the maritime coasts of ASIA MINOR and SYRIA; it also grows throughout all GREECE. It acquires a considerable size, and its wood, hard and resinous, is frequently employed in the ship-building carried on at MUNDANIA, at the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE, and at RHODES.

\* *Quercus orientalis, latifolia, foliis ad costam pulchrè incisis, glande maxima, cupula crinita.* TOURNEFORT. Coroll. page 40.—*Id. Voyage au Levant.* Vol. i. page 240.

Pococke's Travels, vol. ii. tab. 86.

Chêne à cupule chevelue, *quercus crinita.* LAM. Encycl. Bot. vol. i. page 718. No. 4.

† *Quercus orientalis, glande cylindri, formi, longo pediculo infidente.* TOURNEFORT. Coroll. page 40.

Chêne à grappe, *quercus racemosa.* LAM. Encyclop. Botan. Vol. i. page 715. No. 1.

The other pine which we found in plenty in the environs of **OLYMPUS** and in all the interior of **ASIA MINOR**, bears a straight stem, and acquires a considerable size and height. Its seeds, which I brought to **PARIS**, have come up very well in the garden of Citizen **CELS**, a cultivator, and member of the National Institute.

The Gulf of **MUNDANIA**, *PLATE III.* is deep, rather narrow, and surrounded by lofty mountains: the one to the north is almost entirely calcareous; it is partly schistose, partly formed of sandstone at its base. The coast situated to the south presents, all along the shore, a hard, mixed rock, containing pebbles of porphyry, granite, &c. At the head of the gulf is seen a sandy beach by no means elevated, and beyond, a small fertile plain, watered by a rivulet, which bore the name of the town; and by a little river, known formerly by the name of *HYLAS*. In this plain are cultivated various kitchen-garden plants, such as the solanum melongena, the hibiscus esculentus, the water-melon, and several fruit trees, among which we remarked the pomegranate-tree and a species of apple-tree with oblong fruit, of a very agreeable flavour. We procured several slips of this apple-tree, and sent them to **CONSTANTINOPLE** in order to be there raised in the garden of the palace belonging to the embassy, till we should have it in our power to convey them ourselves to **FRANCE**.

It is not to be doubted that this apple-tree would thrive in the south of **FRANCE**, since the temperature of **GHEMLEK** is at least as warm as that of our southern departments, where it is known that the apple-tree vegetates badly, and yields only worm-eaten fruit.

The pomegranates of **GHEMLEK** are held in such estimation, that the Greeks of that village are obliged to pay their personal impost with a certain quantity

quantity of this fruit, which they send every year to CONSTANTINOPLE for the harem of the Grand Signior.

Although the olive-tree is much propagated on the rising grounds of the environs, yet the inhabitants are not accustomed to extract oil from its fruit. They prefer gathering the olive when it is perfectly ripe in the months of Brumaire and Frimaire, in order to salt it and afterwards send it to the capital, where the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews make, during the whole year, a great consumption of this fruit. The preparation of these olives consists in throwing marine salt on them, in a rather large quantity, and stirring them about so that they may be thoroughly impregnated with it. They are afterwards put, for some days, into baskets, and are slightly pressed in order to facilitate the draining of the aqueous part, after which they are kept in earthen jars.

These olives are eaten without any other preparation: they are sometimes seasoned with salt, vinegar, and oil; they are also served up with solanum melongena, pimento, celery, and fennel pickled in vinegar, together with anchovies, and other salted fishes.

At GHEMLEK, as well as in the environs of BURSA, the white mulberry-tree is cultivated in plenty for the rearing of silk-worms; but here this tree is not permitted to grow, as in our climates: it is kept as a dwarf, and every year are taken off all the branches which have shot forth the preceding year, in order to be given, with their leaves on them, to the silk-worms. After this cutting, the mulberry-tree pushes forth fresh shoots which are to be cut the following year, as they are wanted.

These trees are planted according to the quality of the soil, at the distance of three or four feet from each other. They are not grafted, because it has,

no doubt, been discovered that the smaller and more savoury leaves of the wild mulberry-tree are of a quality superior to those which are large, succulent, and by no means substantial. It is not, in general, the practice to give them manure; some are watered; but all receive two hoeings, the one at the moment of their vegetation, and the other at the end of the summer. This tree, thus cultivated, lasts a great number of years: it forms one of the principal articles of wealth of the environs of BURSA, and supplies a great many manufactories of silk stuffs established in that town for the use of the Orientals.

A field planted with mulberry-trees which may have been permitted to rise and grow, will, doubtless, furnish a more considerable quantity of leaves, than if it were planted with dwarf mulberry-trees, although the latter are much closer to each other; but if a cultivator consider the facility that he has of procuring at pleasure all the leaf of the latter by cutting the young boughs, and the inappreciable advantage of being able to shelter, by a wall or a hedge, the dwarf mulberry-trees from a frozen wind which attacks and so frequently causes the leaf to wither, in our southern departments, at the moment of its budding, and, by that means, deprives of their nourishment the silk-worms already hatched, it will be found, perhaps, that this culture is not to be neglected, and that it ought to be adopted, at least in part, in the South of FRANCE.

The Greeks are great eaters of land-snails; but they have not, like the Romans, the art of fattening them and making them a monstrous size by an abundant and choice food. They content themselves with picking them up in the fields and keeping them in their houses, for some days, in earthen jars, in order to make them void all the food on which they have subsisted. They boil them for several hours in water with a little salt, after which they make a sauce strongly seasoned with garlic, parsley, and spices. We saw the

Greeks

Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE and GHEMLEK eat almost every species of European snails, but more particularly the beautiful *chestnut* snail, of which we give the figure, *PLATE XVII. fig. 1. a. b.*

It is larger than the *pomatia* or vine-snail: its spire is less elevated, and its mouth less large. The whole shell is generally coloured by large zones of a chestnut brown, intersected by other pale zones, of which the one that traverses the middle of the last volute, is distinguished for its whitish colour. The semi-elliptic mouth is in proportion. The lip is obtuse: it forms, without, a little border, and is coated, within, by a brown enamel which increases towards the umbilical region. The bottom of the opening is as if milk-white, although transmitting the exterior zones\*.

Among the land-shells which we found in the environs of GHEMLEK, we shall remark two *bulimi* which hitherto appear to us unknown to naturalists.

1. The *zebra* bulimus, *fig. 10. a. b.* It is smooth, whitish, more or less marked longitudinally with lines somewhat rufous. Its twelve volutes are a little convex. Its summit is obtuse, and its umbilical foramen very perceptible. Its mouth is white: it has three teeth placed in the form of a triangle, nearly at equal distances†.

2. The *oval* bulimus, *fig. 12. a. b.* It is of a whitish colour, clearer towards the mouth. It is composed of six volutes a little convex and smooth. Its shape is that of an egg, short and obtuse. It is provided with a little *umbilicus*. Its mouth is oblong, oblique, narrowed by six teeth

\* *HELIX castanea magna, exumbilicata, depressiuscule globosa, rufo-castanea, pallido zonata, callositate obtusi interno et umbilicali fusco.*

† *BULIMUS zebra parvulus, oblongus, umbilicatus, lævis, albidus rufo lineolatus; apertura alba aequalita triplicique versu tridentata.*

nearly equal, very distinct, three on each side. From this mouth, it approaches to the *bulimus scarabæus*; it is not at all compressed, and its size is from three lines to three lines and a half\*.

On the 20th of Frimaire (12th of December) the cold was sharply felt for the first time; there fell five or six inches of snow, which brought a great many snipes into the neighbouring woods, and a vast number of ducks on the two little rivers and in the plain. The red partridge and the hare were every where in great plenty and of an exquisite flavour. The captain, a determined sportsman, had an excellent pointer, so that we lived well at little expense during our stay at GHEMLEK.

Citizen TOUSSAINT, a ship-builder, settled in the village, forgot nothing to make us pass our time agreeably, and to procure us every information of which we stood in need. We learnt, with inquietude, that his zeal, for the service of the PORTE, had several times exposed him to being massacred by the Turks belonging to the country inland, who accused him improperly of being the cause of the oppression which the government made them experience for the felling and the conveyance of the wood necessary for the construction of the ship with which he was charged.

These wretches, excited, perhaps, by the treasurer, who hated a superintendant whose manners and probity gave him umbrage, and by a few Greeks jealous of the preference which a stranger obtained over them, came one day to the number of upwards of fifty, in the intention of killing him. Citizen TOUSSAINT, robust and courageous, after having escaped from several among them, who assaulted him on his way from the dock-yard to the village, shut himself up in his house, mounted six blunderbusses in front of

\* *BULIMUS* *ovularis* *minutus*, *ovatus*, *sordide albidus*, *anfractibus* *sex*; *vertice* *obtusissimo*; *apertura* *oblique oblongiuscula*, *sexdentata*.

the entrance door, armed his wife and his servant, took himself a double-barrelled gun, two pistols and a sabre, placed a barrel of powder in the middle of the house, announced to these ferocious men, who attempted to burst open the door, what were his means of defence, and the intention of burying himself under the ruins of his house if they were daring enough to enter it. Some attempted to get in at the windows; but every where they found a man who presented death to them. The inhabitants of the village, through pity, attachment, or interest\*, soon hastened to his assistance: they had no great difficulty to disarm, by their tears and their intreaties, men whom the courage of Citizen TOUSSAINT had already shaken, and who found it, no doubt, more prudent to retire to their habitations, than to hazard their life against him who defended so well his own.

Though the season was not very proper for herborizing, we, nevertheless, found a few interesting plants: we saw, in flower, on the hedges, the ever-green virgin's bower†, and towards the sea-side a pretty daphne, which we met with again in SYRIA, in the interior of ASIA MINOR, and which TOURNEFORT had discovered in CRETE‡. There was also on the rising grounds a new species of *spartium* ||, a shrub which grows to the height of five feet, of

\* The Turkish government, in case of murder, exacts a heavy fine from the inhabitants:

† *Clematis cirrhosa*. LINN.—LAMARE, *Encyclopédie Botanique. Climatite*. No. 9.

‡ *Thymelæa Cretica, olea folio subius nullo*. TOURN. Corroll. page 41.

LAMARE, *Encyclop. Bot. Lauricæ*. No. 22.

*Daphne collina*. SMITH. *Spicil.* Fasc. 2, page 16, tab. 18. Aug. Neapolitan Mezercon. T.

|| The stem while yet young of this *spartium* has three angles which are imperceptibly obliterated: it shoots forth a great number of branches, which are alternate, flexible, and of a whitish green. The leaves almost sessile, are ternate, and destitute of stipules. The flowers, of a golden yellow and provided with bractes, are disposed in clusters at the top of the branches: to these succeed oblong pods truncated at their summit.

Citizen VENTENAT, who is publishing an account of the plants cultivated in the garden of Citizen CELS, has caused this *spartium* to be drawn, and intends to insert it in one of his approaching fasciculi, under the name of *spartium parviflorum*.

which we sent to the national garden of plants, and to Citizen CEIS, some seeds that have come up very well.

We saw every where in the woods the andrachne and the arbutus loaded with flowers and fruit; the former, which feels the cold a little more than the other, grows not in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE; we found it in plenty near the HELLESPONT, in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the coast of ASIA MINOR, and in SYRIA. It shoots up sometimes to the height of a tree; but it more generally preserves that of a shrub. Its trunk, smooth and red when the epidermis of the year has fallen, the beauty of its foliage, its clustered flowers, its fruits of a bright red—every thing concurs to render it one of the most elegant shrubs of the LEVANT. If the arbutus is inferior to it in point of port, stems, foliage, and flowers, it claims a superiority for its fruits. Those of the andrachne are smaller than those of the arbutus: they have a sourish and rough taste, which does not equal the rather flat sweetness of the other.

From the neighbouring mountains are perceived the Lake *ASCANIUS* and the fertile plain of NICEA, of which I shall have occasion to speak elsewhere. It is reckoned two or three hours' walk from GHEMIEK to the lake, and seven or eight to go as far as NICEA. BURSA lies nearly at the same distance. These places remind us of the second battle fought near *CIUS*, in the year 193 of the christian era, between LUCIUS SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS and PESCENNIUS NIGER, who disputed with each other the empire of the Romans after the death of the virtuous PERTINAX, massacred by an undisciplined and corrupt soldiery. They also remind us of the efforts made by the first Turkish emperors to get possession of GHEMLEK\*. OTHMAN, already master of almost all BITHYNIA, had attempted in vain to

\* Some authors write *Kemlik*.

subdue BURSA and GHEMLEK: ORKHAN, his son, obtained the former without bloodshed, and the latter after a year's siege.

Ships and boats which trade to BURSA, almost always repair to MUNDANIA, a small town situated in the middle of the gulf, on the ruins of MYRLEA or ATAMEA: it seldom happens that they come to GHEMLEK, because the anchorage of MUNDANIA is very good, the communications between it and BURSA are more easy, more frequent, and the distance from it is less.

On the first of Nivose, (21st of December,) at sun-rise, the wind being to the east-north-east, we weighed anchor, and stood on for our destination. Before night we passed the little Island of CALO LIMNO, commonly known under the name of POPE'S ISLAND: it is by no means elevated, almost flat, tolerably fertile, as we were told, and inhabited only by Greeks. This is the ancient BESBICOS, situated three leagues from the coast, facing the river RHYNDACUS, at this day called MIKALITSA.

The wind freshened a little, and became north-east at sun-set. At three or four o'clock in the morning, the captain, having judged that that we had passed the Island of MARMORA, hove to in order not to enter the channel by night. We accordingly found ourselves, at break of day, to the north-west of that island, two leagues from the Ilet of GAI DOURLA.

MARMORA has received its name from a white marble, a little veined with gray and bluish, which is thence extracted in great quantities. Although its grain is not fine, nor its colours beautiful and mixed, the Greeks, nevertheless, esteemed it formerly and frequently made use of it: they distinguished it by the name of CYZICUS marble, because that peninsula furnished, perhaps, some of the same quality, or because the town of the same name served

as an emporium for it. Fragments of it are found among the ruins of almost all the ancient cities: pillars of it are seen in various places, and particularly in the mosques of CONSTANTINOPLE. At the present day this marble is worked only for the sepulchral stones made use of by the Turks, the Armenians, and the Europeans: it is seldom employed in the construction of houses.

This island is about twelve leagues in circuit: it is lofty, mountainous, and tolerably fertile; it contains several towns or villages rather populous: it has two harbours by no means extensive, situated to the south. Vessels surprised by a northerly wind somewhat strong, go thither sometimes to seek a shelter. The inhabitants have a few flocks of sheep; they cultivate the vine, the olive-tree, and cotton, and gather various species of grain.

MARMORA formerly bore the names of *NEVRIS*, *ELAPHONNESUS*, and *PROCONNESUS*\*, on account of the quantity of flags which were there to be met with. I believe that none exist there at this day, as the woods are destroyed, and the mountains are almost naked.

On entering into the channel, we with pleasure directed our looks towards the coast of EUROPE: we remarked a mountain parallel to the shore, at no great distance from the sea, and beheld a fertile soil, tolerably well cultivated. The coast of ASIA fixed our attention more; it is flat, marshy to beyond the GRANICUS, and extremely fertile in the places which are not inundated: the mountains that are discovered at some distance, are very wooded, and loftier than those of EUROPE. We for a long time contemplated Mount OLYMPUS entirely covered with snow, and bad adieu to CONSTANTINOPLE, to the PROPONTIS, and to CYZICUS, which we regretted not having

\* *Nevris*, νεβρις, the fawn of a doe; *Elaphonnesus*, from ελαφος, a stag, and from νησος, island; *Proconnesus*, from προς, προς, which alike signify a young stag, and from νησος, island.

visited, and to all those places so famous in history, and so worthy of that fame.

The objects to which our eyes were directed on both sides of the channel, disappeared with the greatest rapidity: we had the wind right aft, and the stream of the waters accelerated our progress, so that, at ten o'clock in the morning, we found ourselves off GALLIPOLI. This town, at present the most considerable of those situated on the HELLESPONT, passed into the power of the Turks, under the reign of JOHN PALEOLOGUS, and was taken by SOLIMAN, son of ORKHAN. It contains within its walls about fifteen or sixteen thousand inhabitants, Greeks, Mussulmans, and Jews; and is situated on a ledge of rocks which the waters have undermined. It projects, and forms a sort of cape, at the extremity of which is placed a lighthouse for guiding mariners, and pointing out to them the route which they are to take when they enter the channel by night. Another is seen for the same purpose, almost opposite, on the coast of ASIA. The channel grows narrow all at once off GALLIPOLI, so that it is not a league in width. The sea forms a cove to the south of the town, which serves as a harbour for boats which come and anchor there, as well as for ships thwarted by the wind.

The mountain, of which I have before spoken, has imperceptibly sunk, and gives place to hills deprived of culture and of all ornament. That of ASIA, on the contrary, has drawn nearer and presents a natural landscape of the greatest beauty.

LAMPUSCUS, off which we found ourselves almost immediately, possesses a charming soil, extremely fertile, and well watered. This town, formerly much more considerable than GALLIPOLI, was famous for its gardens, its vineyards, and the goodness of its wines, for its temples, and, above all, for the worship which the inhabitants paid to the god PRIAPUS. It is no longer

any thing at this day, but a mean village, inhabited by some Greeks and some Turks: it still preserves a few vine-plots on the rising grounds in the neighbourhood; but its fine gardens have disappeared: on the ruins of its temples, has been erected a mosque, and the worship paid to the God preserver of the Universe, is replaced by offerings to the *PANAYIA*.

As far as the Point of NAGARA, on which are still to be remarked the ruins of ABYDOS, the HELLESPONT presents nothing remarkable but the fertile and verdant hills by which it is bordered, and a few vallies more or less cultivated. Although the distance from LAMPUSCUS to ABYDOS is also upwards of fifteen miles, our progress was so rapid, that we had soon cleared that space, and were able, about one o'clock in the afternoon, to bring up at the excellent anchorage which lies to the south of this cape. We hastened to land our baggage, and to proceed to the town, nearly two miles distant. Citizen BERMOND, vice-consul of the Republic, had been expecting us for some days; he had had the civility to have apartments prepared for us in the consul's house: he was so kind as to accompany us in our excursions, and neglected nothing to render the stay that we made at the DARDANIELLES as agreeable as useful.

CHAPTER II.

*Stay at the Dardanelles.—Description of the Hellespont; and of the towns situated on its shores.—Productions and commerce of those countries.*

THE HELLESPONT, or Sea of HELLE, is thus named because that princess, daughter of ATHAMAS, king of THEBES, wishing to conceal herself, with her brother PHRYXUS, from the persecutions of INO, their mother-in-law, had the misfortune to be there drowned. It is said that, mounted with her brother on a ram covered with a golden fleece instead of wool, she ventured to cross the channel which separates THRACE from TROAS; but when she found herself in the middle of the waters, she was so terrified at the danger to which she had imprudently exposed herself, that she fell into the sea, where she met with the death which she was endeavouring to avoid. The Greeks, touched by her misfortunes, in order to eternize the remembrance of this event, gave the name of the unfortunate princess to the arm of the sea in which she perished.

This sea is more known at the present day by the name of the *Strait* or *Channel of the DARDANELLES*, because the modern town at which we had just landed, is called by the Europeans, the DARDANELLES; a name which has been transmitted to it from the ancient DARDANA, DARDANIA, or DARDANUS, situated a few miles lower down; for, according to the ancient geographers, it was eight miles to the south of ABYDOS, towards Cape TRAPEZA, commonly distinguished by the name of BARBER'S CAPE. The river RHODIUS, on which the modern town is built, flowed at nearly an equal distance from ABYDOS and DARDANUS.

In this town are reckoned scarcely four thousand inhabitants, Greeks, Mussulmans, and Jews. Its position is agreeable, its territory is fertile, and its productions are very diversified. To the north-east, is seen a rising ground covered with vines; to the south, a plain terminated by a mountain by no means lofty: this plain extends to the east, and then forms a valley extremely fertile, watered by the RHODIUS. At the extremity of this valley are found indications of a volcano: among others are to be seen considerable blocks of granite, the quartzose part of which is almost entirely converted into glass. A little farther on, is a fertile and circular bottom, of small extent, surrounded by mountains covered with wood.

In the territory of the DARDANELLES are cultivated cotton, sesamum, various kitchen-garden plants, the vine, the olive-tree, and several species of fruit-trees. The orange-tree begins to grow here in the open air; and a tolerably large quantity of grain is here collected. The neighbouring mountains furnish the *velanida*\* and gall-nut used in trade.

The waters of the HELLESPONT have a rapid stream opposite the castle, situated at the lower end of the town, while they are tranquil or run up into the cove, which lies at the upper part, and which serves as a harbour for the small craft that trade brings thither, as well as to vessels and to ships of war that sometimes come to an anchor there. The captains of these two last-mentioned prefer, however, both in winter and summer, the anchorage of NAGARA, because they are more sheltered from the north wind, and because its bottom is better.

\* This is the name given by the modern Greeks to the cup of the acorn produced by the *quercus Ægilops*. In dyeing, the Orientals, the Italians, and the English, employ this cup, as well as the gall-nut of the *quercus infectoria*.—Translator.

The **HELLESPONT**, at first sight, resembles a majestic river quietly carrying its waters to the ocean; but, confined within its bed, it is never known to pass the limits which Nature has traced for it. Here are not seen those devastating overflowings to which countries crossed by great rivers are too frequently exposed. Neither are there to be met with, in the environs, those infectious marshes, those stagnant waters, so common towards the mouth of rivers: here the lands are cultivated, or are naturally covered with verdure even close to the water. And if the shores of the **HELLESPONT** are not fecundified by canals of irrigation, if the waters deposit not on the lands a fertilizing mud, the communications which it establishes between the **PROPONTIS** and the **BLACK SEA** on the one side, the **MEDITERRANEAN** and the **OCEAN** on the other, the advantages which agriculture and industry can derive from the facility of conveyance, are benefits greater, perhaps, than those which would result, to these countries, from the vicinity of a great river.

The **RHODIUS** takes its source to the north-east of Mount **IDA**: it receives a few rivulets which flow from the neighbouring mountains, and, after having traversed a space of twelve or fifteen miles, it discharges itself into the **HELLESPONT**, by the side of the castle of the **DARDANELLES**. Its waters, by no means abundant in summer, are kept back and employed in the irrigation of the lands; but in winter, swelled by the rains which are frequent in that season, it occupies a bed sufficiently large to deserve the name of river. The inhabitants of the **DARDANELLES** have constructed a wooden bridge at some distance from its mouth, in order to be able to cross at all times to the left bank, and repair to the fields that they cultivate beyond it.

Behind the castle, between the town and the river, is a tolerably extensive walk, naturally turfed and shaded by very tall plane-trees. Although this place is very cool and very agreeable, it is scarcely at all frequented by the in-

habitants of the town: one there meets with none but Europeans, whom commerce and curiosity bring into this country.

Three miles from the DARDANELLES, in ascending towards the north, are found, on a spot resembling a plain of a triangular figure, a few vestiges of the ancient ABYDOS. The ground is elevated and covered with heaps of rubbish, among which are to be distinguished bricks, fragments of potter's ware, pieces of granite, and marble of every species. A few shapeless masses of masonry are perceived along the anchorage, situated to the south-west. On the neighbouring coast is seen a road deeply dug, by which the inhabitants of ABYDOS repaired to a fertile plain that lies to the east. The city occupied the southern part of the triangular spot which I have just mentioned, and extended to part of the rising ground that faces the channel.

There is not, on the shores of the HELLESPONT, a situation more agreeable and more advantageous than this for a town; for, independently of the view of the whole channel, of its two shores, and even of TENEDOS\*, besides the means which there would be to fortify it, being surrounded by the sea and an insulated hill, the anchorage is unquestionably the most spacious and the most safe of the HELLESPONT; and if the Turks really wished to prohibit the entrance of the PROPONTIS to an enemy's fleets, there would be no place more proper for the erection of a battery, than the point of NAGARA; for ships always approach this point in spite of themselves, on account of the salient angle which the land makes in this place. Besides, this part of the channel is almost as narrow as that of the second castles.

Two leagues to the south-east of ABYDOS, is seen SILLEIS, a small rivulet which would no longer be thought of, did it not indicate the position of

\* The gently-rising ground of TROAS allows the Island of TENEDOS to be perceived.

ARISBA, near which the army of ALEXANDER encamped, while that conqueror was occupied in visiting the ruins of TROY.

Geographers are not agreed respecting the position of the ancient DARDANUS: some place it on Cape TRAPEZA; and others, at the foot of Mount IDA. I found not in the environs of that cape, commonly called *BARBER'S CAPE*, any vestige, any trace of a town; neither did I perceive rubbish, bricks, nor heaps of stones. The very ground, uneven, hilly, by no means fertile, and destitute of water, appears little calculated for the situation of a town of any consequence. I suspect, with the latter, that it stood inland; for in the times when people could appreciate all the advantages of a maritime trade, and even sometimes receded from the sea-shores, in order to be less exposed to the incursions of pirates, they must have preferred such situations as placed the inhabitants within reach of the fields which they cultivated, and from which they derived all their riches.

Beyond the cape, the coast is white and chalky, which has occasioned it to be given by mariners the name of *WHITE SPOTS*: here it is that vessels, waiting for a favourable wind for ascending the HELLESPONT, generally anchor.

We were not more fortunate in our search for *OPHRYNIUM*, which is placed between DARDANUS and RHÆTEUM: as for the latter, it appears, that it is situated between the promontory of that name and the tomb of AJAX, to judge of it from the fragments of potter's ware and bricks which are there to be found; for it is well known, that nothing indicates in a more certain manner the position of ancient cities. Monuments crumble away, the materials are carried off, the plough levels the soil; fragments of bricks and potter's ware alone resist time and the hand of man.

When you have passed the tomb of **AJAX**, situated on an eminence, you see even beyond the **SIMOÏS**, a low, sandy plain near the sea, very fertile in proportion as you recede from it. But before we travel over **TROAS**, and visit those places which history has rendered so famous, let us return to the **HELLESPONT**, and transport ourselves to the coast of **EUROPE**.

According to the poets and the greater part of the Greek historians, **SESTOS** was situated opposite to **ABYDOS**, at the most narrow part of the channel. Those two towns are become famous from the loves, real or fabulous, of **LEANDER** and **HERO**, whose end was so unfortunate. **LEANDER** lived at **ABYDOS**: **HERO** was at **SESTOS**, a priestess of **VENUS**. Too confident, no doubt, in his strength and skill, **LEANDER**, in order not to be discovered, for a long time, swam across the **HELLESPONT**, guided by a torch which his mistress lighted on the top of a tower: but, in a tempestuous night, **LEANDER**, having too imprudently committed himself to the waves, could not reach the other shore, and was unfortunately swallowed up by the agitated waters. **HERO**, in her despair, threw herself into the sea, in order to share the fate of her lover.

**PROCOPIUS** places **SESTOS** in the cove the nearest to **ABYDOS**: he even adds, that the emperor **JUSTINIAN** caused a citadel to be built near that city: the remains of this citadel are still to be seen close to the sea-shore. The first courses of masonry in hewn-stone, on which the wall was erected, are there to be distinguished. This wall forms a talus of about fifteen inches. The tower, situated at the extremity of the citadel, is round and in a great measure destroyed: the remains of an arch, which formed the first story, are still to be perceived. Its walls, as well as those of the citadel, are built with several courses of rough, unhewn stones, and several courses of bricks laid flat the one on the other in three or four rows. On the declivity of the hill, the walls of the ancient city may very easily be traced. Within the

enclosure of these walls, lie heaps of stones, among which are to be distinguished bricks, fragments of potter's ware, pieces of granite and marble. It is probable, that this rubbish has been heaped up for the purpose of clearing the ground, and putting it into a state of cultivation; and that, in this manner, the remains of the monuments that might there be met with have been destroyed.

Four miles from SESTOS, in ascending the channel, is another harbour, near which is seen only a simple habitation of dervises, occupied by three or four Muffulman monks. This anchorage, one of the best of the whole channel, is little known to most of the mariners who frequent the seas of the LEVANT, because they prefer, with reason, that of NAGARA as more within reach of MAÏTA and the DARDANEELLES, where they procure such provisions as they are in want of.

Facing ABYDOS, a short league to the south-west of SESTOS, is seen at the head of an extensive and not very deep cove, the village of MAÏTA, built on the ruins of *MATYDOS*. Some remains of old masonry are still to be found on a hillock, which overlooks the modern town situated on the sea-shore. At a little distance from Madytos was formerly *CÆLOS PORTUS*, a small town which was witness of the sea-fight that took place between the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians, a fight in which the latter were conquered and obliged to give up to their rivals the empire of the HELLESPONT.

The territory of MAÏTA, although by no means fertile, furnishes some fruits, a little corn, some wine, and, in particular, cotton. Most of the inhabitants are seamen: the others apply themselves to the culture of the lands and to the manufacture of sail-cloth, for which they employ the  
cotton.

cotton that they gather, and a small quantity which they purchase, either at the DARDANELLES or at GALLIPOLI.

Two leagues from MAÏTA, facing the DARDANELLES, at the most narrow part of the channel, is seen a village by no means considerable, known by the name of the *SECOND CASTLE OF EUROPE*. The citadel which stands below the village, on the sea-shore, and of which *TOURNEFORT* has given a drawing, is no better calculated for defending at this day the entrance of the channel, than that of *ASIA*: neither the one nor the other would not long hold out against ships of the line that might attack them. Their monstrous guns, without carriages, loaded with bullets of marble or granite, of about two feet in diameter, would soon be abandoned by gunners, who could neither manage them, nor point them, nor even load them with facility.

This village, situated at the foot of a hill rather lofty, affords to the inhabitants of the DARDANELLES a very agreeable landscape, embellished almost always by the ships and boats which are incessantly ascending the HELLESPONT, or making sail for the ARCHIPELAGO.

The inhabitants of this village are less industrious than those of MAÏTA: the greater part of them are Turks attached to the duty of the citadel, or employed in carrying over in boats the persons who are repairing from the one town to the other. It is the Greeks who apply themselves more particularly to the culture of the lands. I saw, for the first time, in their territory, hives shut up in buildings more or less spacious, according to the quantity of bees that were there reared. The object of this building in masonry, carefully shut, is to secure those insects from the cold during the winter, from the heat during the summer, and at all times from the hand of man, far more dangerous than the inclemency of the seasons.

A league from the second castle of EUROPE, on descending the HELLESPONT, is perceived on a height another dwelling of dervises, inhabited by a few Turkish monks, whose function consists in making signals for the vessels and ships of war which enter the channel, and in displaying from time to time the Ottoman flag. Thence to the first castle of EUROPE, the coast is uncultivated, and presents nothing remarkable, except a tomb which is supposed to be that of HECUBA, placed above the promontory of CYNOSSEMA, and the remains of an aqueduct, which probably brought the water necessary for the inhabitants of ELÆUS, a town formerly situated at the entrance of the HELLESPONT, on the coast of EUROPE.

On the ruins of ELÆUS, at this day is seen a Turkish village, called *ELBAHAR-KALESSI*, at the foot of which is built the first castle of EUROPE. To the west of this castle, is still seen the tomb of PROTESILAUS, king of THESSALY, killed by HECTOR, and a few vestiges of a temple to which his devotion to his country's cause had entitled him. PROTESILAUS was the first of the Greek heroes who set his foot on the coast of ASIA, although the oracle had thrice announced, that the man who first landed on the Trojan shore, would lose his life.

Thence to CRITIA, a Greek village situated to the north, up the country, may be reckoned about two hours' journey. It is well known, that there was a town of the same name in the Chersonesus of THRACE, at a little distance from the sea-shore, in the same place, probably, where the modern village is built. You arrive there by an uneven ground, and a small plain, the earth of which is partly whitish and cretaceous.

We had no where seen the red partridge so common as in this plain and in the groves of pine which stand in the environs. The hare is here in equal plenty and very well tasted. During the winter, a great many woodcocks

are found in the uncultivated, shaded, and moist vallies. Neither is the wild boar scarce: as the latter does a great deal of injury to culture, and is particularly fond of grapes, the Greeks hunt it sometimes and kill a great number: but the quadruped the most common in all these countries, is the jackal, of which I shall frequently have occasion to speak.

In the environs of the **DARDANELLES**, I was one day witness of the manner in which the Greeks shoot partridges, less with a view of procuring themselves an excellent article of game, than for the purpose of diminishing the number of the enemies of their crops. This sport consists in carrying a gun and a sort of banner rolled up, striped with very lively colours, somewhat similar to a harlequin's jacket. As soon as they perceive at a distance a covey of partridges, they unroll the banner, and approach by degrees those birds till they have got within gun-shot of them. The fowler thrusts into the ground the staff of the banner, and, through an aperture made on purpose, he fires on the partridges, which are so terrified, that they squat and suffer themselves to be killed, the one after the other, rather than fly away. The greatest difficulty the fowler experiences, is to perceive them; for that purpose, he turns round them, constantly concealed behind the banner, and as soon as he perceives one of them, he fires at it, and goes on in the same manner till he has destroyed the whole covey. This sport is practicable, as is seen, only in cultivated plains, and on lands not much covered with herbage and bushes.

The portion of land comprised between the **HELLESPONT** and the Gulf of **SAROS**, known by the name of the Chersonesus or peninsula of **THRACE**, is little more than from three to four leagues in its greatest breadth: it is nearly twenty from the southern extremity to the long wall, **MACRONTICHOS**, which separates the peninsula from the continent. At the end of this wall, towards the **PROPONTIS**, was the town of the same name, on which there

now

now remain only a few habitations that the harbour maintains. Inland, stands the village of *HEXAMILA*, which has preserved the name that was given it, on account of the distance that there is from the one sea to the other.

The land of this peninsula is uneven, hilly, and not so good, in general, as that of the coast of *ASIA*. There are, however, a few vallies of the greatest fertility, and some plains tolerably productive. The lands are chalky in some places: the hills and rising grounds are all calcareous: here are to be found some fossil shells, to which there are none analogous belonging to the seas of *EUROPE*. In the environs of *MAÏTA*, is seen, at the foot of hills, a soft sand-stone, or a pure sand; and in the cove of *SESTOS* is remarked, at upwards of twenty feet above the level of the sea, a tolerably thick bank of marine conchylia, the species of which all belong to the *MEDITERRANEAN*. This bank formerly extended, no doubt, into *ASIA*, for, beyond the hill of *ABYDOS*, the plain affords in a rather large quantity the same shells that we had seen in this bank\*.

Different French, Italian, and English merchants, have several times attempted to establish commercial houses at the *DARDANELLES*; but they have never been able to succeed in this: they had, undoubtedly, not remarked that the merchants of *CONSTANTINOPLE*, preserving over them the advantage of residing in the capital, where the consumption is very considerable, were equally within reach of furnishing the articles of which the towns situated on the *HELLESPONT* are in want, and of there making, with no less facility than economy, the purchase of those which are demanded of them. The Jew, Greek, and Armenian traders, through whose hands it is necessary to pass in every case, are very glad to preserve the connexions which they have with the merchants of *CONSTANTINOPLE*, whom they consider,

\* *Ostrea edulis*, *venus cbione*, *venus cancellata*, *solen vagina*, *buccinum reticulatum*, *cerithium vulgatum*, &c.

besides, as better stocked, and better enabled to make the payments which they indicate to them.

The articles of exportation which the towns situated on the HELLESPOINT can furnish, are:

Two or three hundred bales of cotton of various qualities.

Two hundred quintals of coarse spun cotton.

A great many coarse cotton cloths.

Three or four hundred bales of wool of inferior quality.

A great quantity of TURKEY leather or Morocco, prepared in the DARDANELLES and at GALLIPOLI.

Three or four hundred quintals of galls.

A more considerable quantity of *velanida*.

Twelve or fifteen thousand hare-skins.

Sixty or eighty quintals of wax.

Very little madder root.

MAÏTA and the DARDANELLES send a little wine to the capital, and also sell some to the captains of the vessels that may chance to anchor in their harbour or in the environs. The latter find at all times, at the DARDANELLES, biscuit, new bread, poultry, eggs, herbage, different vegetables, and other provisions of which they may stand in need during their voyage.

At the DARDANELLES is manufactured a vast deal of coarse potter's ware, the greatest part of which is sent to CONSTANTINOPLE. Although its quality is very good, and the varnish adheres well, one is surprised to see on it flowers, and other ornaments, which are effaced by time, and are not incorporated with the varnish.

The Republic of VENICE was formerly the only power that had a consul of its nation at the DARDANELLES, FRANCE, ENGLAND, GERMANY, RUSSIA, and the other maritime powers, had there only agents of the country, Jews or Greeks, who discharged the functions of consul, if not with intelligence and probity, at least with the greatest zeal, by means of a barat of droguedman, which placed them under the immediate protection of an ambassador, and afforded them the enjoyment of all the privileges granted to Europeans. But within these few years, the French government has here established a vice-consulate, hoping that a national agent would protect more efficaciously the vessels which are obliged to make a stay here; that he would furnish, besides, to the ships of war that anchor at the WHITE SPOTS, the assistance of which they might be in want, and that he would transmit to the ambassador all the news which his situation enables him to gather.

Ships of war belonging to the powers in amity with the Ottoman PORTE, enter the channel without obstacle, and cast anchor at the *WHITE SPOTS* and off *BARBER'S POINT*; but they cannot, in any case, pass the second castles without an express permission of the sultan. Merchant-vessels may stand on if the wind permit, and proceed directly to CONSTANTINOPLE, or to any port of the PROPONTIS that they may think proper; but, on their return, they are obliged to anchor at NAGARA or at the DARDANELLES, in order to be there visited. It is generally the day after their arrival that this visit takes place: its object is, to ascertain whether all the duties have been paid at the capital; whether prohibited goods have not been shipped without permission; or whether there are not on board runaway slaves or subjects, not Mussulmans, who would wish to quit their country.

## CHAPTER III.

*Excursion to Troas.—Description of that country.—Sketch of its population and productions.—Of the oaks which produce the gall-nut and the velanida used in trade.*

AFTER having visited, founding as we went, almost all the coasts of the HELLESPONT, and having penetrated, in various points, into the interior of the country, in order to ascertain its productions, we hastened to visit TROAS, and cast our eye over places which the genius of the Greeks and Romans have rendered so famous. We embarked at the DARDANELLES on the 10th of Pluviose (29th of January) on board a Turkish caïque, with a northerly wind rather fresh, and in two hours we reached the first castle of ASIA. We immediately caused our mattresses and our provisions to be carried to the Greek village situated on Cape SIGEUM, where we hoped to be more quiet, and to find greater facility for prosecuting our observations far from the suspicious looks of the Mussulmans.

We were very agreeably surprised in visiting TROAS, with the *Iliad* in one hand, and the map of Citizen LECHEVALIER in the other, to find the greatest exactness in the pictures which HOMER has transmitted to us. It is true, there is scarcely any longer to be found a trace of the cities which existed in these countries: the inhabitants even have disappeared; but the course of the SIMOÏS and that of the SCAMANDER have not changed: we perceive, on the banks of the latter, the marshes of which HOMER makes mention: time has not been able to destroy the hillocks of earth under which repose the ashes of the heroes whose names have been handed down to

us; the waves of the sea have not produced any perceptible change on the coast: the lands are still fertile, and susceptible of supporting a great number of inhabitants: forests of pines and oaks still cover Mount IDA, and all the mountains which present themselves to the east of TROAS.

Some of the learned have been desirous of proving that the war of which HOMER speaks, has not taken place; they add, that TROY has never existed, and that the whole *Iliad* is a romance. The object of our researches, in travelling over these countries, was not to know whether we ought to consider as a fable, embellished with the charms of poetry, or as an historical trait considerably altered, that long and cruel war which all the sovereigns of GREECE waged against the Trojans for a princess carried off from her husband; a terrible war, in which, on both sides, a great number of warriors and heroes were sacrificed: a war in which all the gods of OLYMPUS took a very active part. The illusion produced in our mind by the writings of the prince of poets, was too dear to us to endeavour to destroy it by reflections perhaps judicious.

We had so much pleasure in measuring the extent of the camp of the Greeks, in beholding the place of their debarkation, in following the banks of the SIMOÏS and of the SCAMANDER, witnesses of so many exploits; in looking for the hill of fig-trees, the object of ANDROMECA's inquietude; in finding again the traces of ILION and PERGAMUS, in contemplating those heaps of earth under which repose the ashes of the Greek and Trojan heroes: we had so much pleasure, I say, that we should, perhaps, at that moment have turned a deaf ear to him who might have wished to persuade us that nothing in these places affords interest and retraces recollections.

But whatever opinion may be adopted respecting the war of TROY, and the existence of that city, since the publication of the interesting travels of

Citizen *LECHEVALIER* in *TROAS*, and the luminous applications which he makes of the passages of *HOMER*, it is no longer allowable to doubt that the author of the *Iliad* had the most exact knowledge of a country in the vicinity of the places which he inhabited, and that he had even travelled over it before he traced the plan of his poem; and, in that case, *TROAS* and the poem present to the traveller all the interest of truth.

The distance from the *DARDANELLES* to the first castle of *ASIA*, *KOUM-KALESSI*, is about four leagues. Thence to *Cape SIGEUM*, on which is built *YENITCHER-KEUI*, is near half a league: the ground continues rising in this latter space, and you meet with two tombs, which are presumed to be those of *ACHILLES* and *PATROCLUS*. The town, situated behind the castle, on the left bank of the *SIMOÏS*, on a sandy soil perfectly level, is not near so extensive or so populous as the *DARDANELLES*. Neither is the air there so wholesome, on account of the marshes which are on the opposite bank of the river, and whose putrid exhalations, in summer, are carried over the town by the north north-east wind, which blows uninterruptedly during that season. Those which are seen in the plain, to the south of the town, also contribute to occasion intermittent fevers, and remitting putrid ones, towards the end of the summer, when the wind returns to the south. The former, anciently known by the name of *PALUS-STOMA*, or *STOMALIMNE'*, are supplied by the waters of the sea; the latter are produced by the waters of the *SCAMANDER*, which spread over the low lands that surround it.

Beyond the first-mentioned marshes lies a little cove, which is thought to be the harbour where the Greeks who came to the siege of *TROY* landed: the Turks call it *KARAMLIKIMANI*.

The *THYMBRIUS* takes its source to the north north-west of Mount *IDA*, traverses a fertile plain, almost entirely cultivated, and discharges itself into the *SIMOÏS*, at a little distance from the sea. If you ascend this river, whose direction is from east to west, after an hour's progress, you find, at some distance from the left bank, the spot which *CONSTANTINE* had first chosen for making the capital of the empire of the *EAST*. If you still proceed for another long half hour, you see, on the right bank, a little village called *HALELI-KEUI*; and quite close to it, towards the north-east, the ruins of a temple, which is supposed to have been that of *APOLLO THYMBRÆUS*. At a short league further on, still following the rivulet, you find *THUMBREK-KEUI*, a village built probably on the ruins of *THYMBRA*, a town situated formerly at a little distance from *DARDANUS*, of which it was a dependency.

It was in the plain of *THYMBRA*, in the environs of the temple of *APOLLO*, that *ACHILLES*, according to some authors, was struck by the fatal arrow which *PARIS* let fly at him: *APOLLO* himself, by their account, had directed the arrow, in order to avenge the death of *HÆCTOR*, and that of a great number of Trojans, who had likewise perished by the hand of *ACHILLES*.

We leave to antiquaries to tell us whether the town and the plain had received their name from savory, an odoriferous plant, called *thymbra* by the Greeks, or whether that name was given to it by *DARDANUS*, the founder of the town in honour of *THYMBRIOS* his friend: we shall only say that savory grows in abundance in this plain and on all the rising grounds in the neighbourhood.

On quitting this village, we directed our route to the south, leaving on the left the first chain of Mount *IDA*. After two hours' journey on foot over an uneven, hilly soil, almost entirely uncultivated, we arrived at another

village called *ALCH-KELI*: the *SIMOÏS* flows a quarter of a league farther. We met with several flocks of broad-tailed sheep: we inquired of the shepherds, whether there were not on the neighbouring mountains ferocious animals, such as hyænas, ounces, wolves, and jackals, which came to attack their flocks and carry off some sheep: they answered us, that this happened to them very seldom, because they kept a good watch. We learnt that there were on these mountains bears, wild boars, and jackals; but we never could make ourselves understood when we talked of the hyæna and the ounce, which, in the sequel, we found common in *SYRIA*, in *EGYPT*, and in *PERSIA*. It also appeared to us that there were very few wolves in these countries, but a great many jackals, which are known to be an animal by no means ferocious, and scarcely stronger than the fox: jackals are dangerous to sheep and goats, only on account of their going in very numerous packs.

In the middle of the spring, when the plain begins to be stripped of its verdure by the action of a burning sun, the shepherds of these countries, as well as those of the south of *FRANCE* and of *SPAIN*, go and seek in the vallies, and on the mountains up the country, pastures which the coolness and moisture there maintain in that season. They do not return to the vicinity of the sea till the first rains of autumn have revived vegetation, which drought had relaxed or suspended.

The *SIMOÏS* takes its source to the south-west of *COTYLUS*: it flows nearly to the west, traverses a space of from twelve to fifteen leagues, receives the *ANDRIUS* above *INÉ'KEVI*, and several other rivulets, and discharges itself into the *HELLESPONT*, half a league to the north north-east of Cape *SIGEUM*. That stream is not sufficiently considerable to deserve the name of river; it is rather a torrent swelled by the rains, at the end of the autumn, in winter, and in the spring, or by the sudden melting of the snow which falls sometimes in *Nivôse* and in *Pluviôse*, on Mount *IDA* and *COTYLUS*.

Its bed is tolerably wide; but its waters are feldom abundant, and in summer it is almost dry, since a pacha has turned aside the stream of the SCAMANDER, and poured its waters into the *ÆGEAN SEA*.

The SCAMANDER takes its rise at the extremity of the plain of TROY, from five or six springs, one of which is remarkable for its waters somewhat lukewarm. After having traversed a space of six or seven miles, it discharges itself into the SIMOÏS, a league from the sea. Confined in its bed, it experiences no perceptible variation; its banks are enamelled with flowers in almost all seasons; and, in several places, the lands are so low, and the waters fill its bed in such a manner, that they spread themselves, and form several marshes, producing reeds, rushes, and various aquatic plants. In the rainy season, the SCAMANDER is less considerable than the SIMOÏS; but it has over it the advantage of always having nearly the same quantity of water, and of carrying fertility into the plain that it traverses.

We here preserve to the SIMOÏS its name as far as the sea, though almost all the ancients ceased to give it that name on its junction with the SCAMANDER; but, independently of the SIMOÏS having a larger bed, and a stream more extensive than the other; independently of its receiving in winter the waters of all the mountains situated to the east of TROAS, the SCAMANDER at this day has taken another course. Under the reign of ABDUL-HAMID, HASSAN, captain-pacha, wishing to construct several mills, and to water the lands which he possessed towards the Cape of TROY, caused a canal to be dug to the westward of the little village of ERKESSI-KEUI, and poured into it the waters of the SCAMANDER: from that time they have flowed into the *ÆGEAN SEA*, nearly half a league to the south of the Cape of TROY.

The coast is low and marshy at the new mouth of the SCAMANDER: it rises imperceptibly from the Cape of TROY to the village of YENI-KEUI; and thence to Cape SIGEUM it is steep. You walk over an elevated lawn, whence the eye measures without obstacle the whole extent of the plain: you perceive at the extremity the rising ground on which stood ancient TROY: beyond, Mount IDA presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre, and composes a picture of the greatest beauty. To the north is seen the HELLESPONT and the Chersonesus of THRACE; to the west, the ÆGEAN SEA, and some of its islands. TENEDOS is to be remarked from its pyramidal mountain, its rising grounds, and its plains covered with vine-plots. The little island, called *RABBIT ISLAND*, has never fixed the attention of geographers and historians. You distinguish imperfectly the volcanic Island of LEMNOS, in which, according to fable, VULCAN had established his forges. To the north-west, the lofty islands of IMBROS and of SAMOTHRACE appeared to form but one, or even to be confounded with the continent.

YENITCHER-KEUI\*, built on the ruins of SIGEUM, still presents a few vestiges of the ancient town. The curious go thither to admire a block of marble eight or nine feet long, placed by the side of the door of a church: it bears a Greek inscription, almost entirely effaced, the words of which follow each other without interruption, that is, that the first line runs, as among us, from left to right, and the second runs back from right to left, and so on to the end.

On the other side of the door is seen a bas relief in marble, tolerably well wrought: it represents a woman seated, to whom other women appear to

\* YENITCHER-KEUI, village of the janizaries: it is at this day called DJAOUR-KEUI; village of the infidels, since it is no longer occupied but by Greeks.

offer children in swaddling-clothes: behind these is seen another woman, holding a box in one hand, and a vase in the other. M. DE CHOISEUL, ambassador at CONSTANTINOPLE, wishing to have these two pieces of marble carried off, applied to the PORTE, and obtained permission for that purpose; but not having been able to remove the obstacles thrown in his way by the inhabitants, he contented himself with causing impressions to be taken of the latter.

To the north of the village, are ten or twelve windmills, which serve as a land-mark to mariners: half a league to the south, they also remark the tomb of ANTILOCHUS, situated on the elevated lawn of which I have already spoken. ANTILOCHUS, son of the wife NESTOR, perished at the siege of TROY, in wishing to parry the blow that MEMNON was striking at his father. A league more to the south, you find, towards the Cape of TROY, the tomb of PENELEUS, one of the chiefs of the Thebans\*; that of ÆSIETES is a league from the sea, to the east of the new mouth of the SCAMANDER. It is from the elevated top of this tomb that POLITES, son of PRIAM, trusting to the lightness of his heels, came to observe the movements of the Greeks, and watch the moment when they should advance towards TROY. From this tomb to the city is not quite two leagues: thence it is about three to the shores of the HELLESPONT, where the Greeks were encamped.

Wishing to ascend the SCAMANDER to its very sources, we got entangled several times in marshes, whence we had some difficulty to extricate ourselves:

\* Nothing proves that it is the tomb of PENELEUS. This opinion, hazarded by CHANDLER, has been adopted by LECHEVALIER. PENELEUS, according to some others, was killed by EURIPELES, grandson of PRIAM, who had brought succour to TROY in the tenth year of the siege, but it appears that his death was posterior to that of ACHILLES, for no mention is made of it in HOMER.

we were obliged to recede from the river, and take the road that leads to **BOUNAR-BACHI**. We had a quarter of a league to the right, the little village of **BOSKEUI**. When we were at the extremity of the plain, we saw the first source of the **SCAMANDER** issue below the road; the **ERINEOS**, or the hill of wild fig-trees, was on the other side: we thought, at first sight, that we perceived remains of an ancient piece of masonry, which extended over the hill, but we soon got the better of our mistake; what we had at first taken for masonry, was nothing more than the rock itself, formed of a sort of calcareous assemblage of flints, united by a stony cement, reddish, and very substantial.

On following the road, we saw several other springs, more or less copious. We more particularly sought for that spoken of by **HOMER**, whose waters are hot and smoking in winter: it is the nearest to the village: it has preserved a basin formed by some blocks of granite and marble: we plunged our hands into it in **Floréal**, year VI, when, returning from **FRANCE** with Citizens **FERREGEAU**, **PAMPÉLONE**, and other Frenchmen, we wished to visit once more this interesting country. The waters appeared to us only a little lukewarm; but, in winter, we had found them such as **HOMER** describes them. They are very limpid, have scarcely any flavour, and form no apparent sediment. After having watered some gardens, and traversed a miry soil, where grow willows, elms, rushes, and reeds, all these springs unite in one common bed, the breadth of which is twelve, fifteen, or twenty feet by two or three in depth. This is the famous **SCAMANDER** of which I have already made mention.

**BOUNAR-BACHI** is situated to the north-east of the lukewarm spring, on a ground gently sloping: the population of this village does not amount to two hundred souls, notwithstanding the fertility of its soil, the abundance of its pastures, and its advantageous position. We hastened to ascend the  
hill

hill where, it is to be presumed, according to HOMER, that ancient TROY was built: we had already reached two tombs, situated on a stony soil, at the extremity of the rising ground, without discovering as yet any trace of an ancient city: we advanced on an elevated spot, almost perpendicular, at the foot of which meanders the SIMOÏS. We had, before us, at a little distance, the first chains of Mount IDA; we beheld at our feet the SIMOÏS, flowing between calcareous hills, in a narrow fertile valley: to the north, we perceived the HELLESPONT as far as Cape SIGEUM: to the west, we discovered all the plain; we followed the course of the two rivers; we distinguished the tombs of ÆSIETES and ANTILOCHUS; we were, in a word, on the ground of the citadel and of PRIAM's palace, and we still looking for the site of TROY. After an exact search, we discovered a few almost imperceptible fragments of potter's-ware, and some remains of masonry; yet it must be confessed that, but for the Iliad, one would not suspect that this is the place where existed that famous city, which for ten years sustained the united efforts of all the sovereigns of GREECE.

Citizen LECHEVALIER thinks, that it occupies all the space comprised between BOUNAR-BACHI and the precipice, at the foot of which the SIMOÏS shapes its meandering course: he places the citadel on the edge of this precipice, and the Scean, or west gates, at the village itself: he designates the uncultivated hill that lies to the south-west, on which are still seen the wild fig-tree and almond-tree, as well as the ERINEOS or hill of fig-trees, and his proofs are incontestable, if the SCAMANDER had its sources at the foot of the town, if TROY were built on the SIMOÏS, if, from its position, as much as from the valour of its warriors, it may have been able to resist for ten years a formidable army.

Half a league to the south is seen a mountain covered with wood, which the Turks call *CARA-DAAG*: beyond this mountain stands INEKEU, a small village

the cup; the latter is sessile, in a slight degree downy, and furnished with scales not very apparent \*.

The galnut (*fig. a.*) is hard, ligneous, and heavy: it comes at the shoots of the young boughs, and acquires from four to twelve lines in diameter. It is generally round and covered with tuberosities, some of which are pointed.

This galnut is much more esteemed when it is gathered before its maturity, that is, before the issuing of the insect by which it is produced. The galls which are pierced or those from which the insect has escaped, are of a brighter colour: they are not so heavy nor so proper as the others for dyeing.

The Orientals take care to gather the galls at the precise time that experience has proved to be the most favourable to them: it is that in which this excrescence has acquired its full size and its full weight. Were they to delay gathering it, the larva which lives in the inside would there undergo its metamorphosis, would pierce it, and appear under the form of a little winged insect. The gall-nut thenceforth no longer deriving from the tree the juices necessary for the growth of the insect, would dry up, and lose part of the qualities which render it fit for dyeing.

The agas take care that, towards the middle of Messidor, the cultivators visit the hills and mountains that are covered with oaks. It is their interest that the galls should be of a good quality, because they levy a duty on them. The first galls picked up are laid apart: they are known in the EAST under the name of *yerli*, and distinguished in trade by the terms of *black galls*

\* *QUERCUS* infectoria *foliis ovato-oblongis; sinuato-dentatis, glaberrimis, deciduis; fructibus sessilibus, longissimis.*

and *green galls*. Those which have escaped the first searches, and which are gathered a little later, called *white galls*, are of a very inferior quality.

The galls of the environs of MOSSOUL and of TOCAT, and in general those which come from the eastern part of TURKEY, are less esteemed than those of the environs of ALEPPO, SMYRNA, MAGNESIA, KARAHISSAR, DIARBEKIR, and of all the interior of NATOLIA. The former are sold at SMYRNA and at ALEPPO, two or three piastras less per quintal than the others.

The inhabitants almost every where neglect to pick up the acorns; they serve as food for the wild boars and goats: the latter contribute greatly to render the oak small and stunted, by devouring, with its fruit, a part of its foliage and of its young boughs.

The diplolepis which produces these galls (*fig. c. c.*) has a body of a fawn colour, with the antennæ dark, and the upper part of the abdomen of a shining brown. It is sometimes found under its latter form in the inside of the galls which are not yet pierced\*.

On the same oak are seen a great number of other galls which the inhabitants neglect to gather, because they are not fit for dyeing. That which we have drawn is remarkable from its size. It is spongy, very light, of a brown red, covered with a resinous coat, and furnished with a circular row of tubercles placed nearly towards the most inflated part. It differs, as is seen, from that of the *taufin* oak, and the insect which produces it differs from it also. This is a diplolepis whose body is of a brown and fawn colour mixed. The antennæ and the feet are blackish†.

\* *Diplolepis gallæ tinctoriæ*. Encyclop. insect. vol. vi. page 281.

† *DIPLOLEPIS gallæ resinosæ, brunneo testaceoque variis, antennis pedibusque fuscis.*

The modern Greeks name *velani*\*, and botanists *quercus Ægilops*†, the oak which furnishes the *velanida*‡. It grows on the western coast of NATOLIA, in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in those of CORFU and of CEPHALONIA, and throughout all GREECE. It does not rise to the height of our TURKEY oak; its wood is not so esteemed, and is scarcely employed but in cabinet-work. Its leaves are of a bright green; they are a little tomentose on their under side; their form is an oblong oval with sharp teeth on their edges, terminated in a setaceous point. The acorn is big, short, and a little hollow at its top. The cup is sessile, very broad, and closely beset with long oblong scales (*PLATE XIII.*)

It is this cup which the Orientals, the Italians, and the English employ as well as the gall-nut, in dyeing. The French merchants have them sent sometimes to MARSEILLES, only for the purpose of forwarding them to GENOA and LEGHORN. Our dyers have hitherto neglected to make use of this substance.

TROAS affords few vines, though the rising grounds and hills are very fit for that culture; but the inhabitants are not there accustomed to make wine. The grapes are employed in making a confection, called *petmés* in

\* From *βαλανος*, acorn.

† *Quercus orientalis castaneæ folio, glande recondita in cupula crassa et squamosa.* TOURNEFORT, coroll. 40. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. page 334.

Pococke's Travels, vol. ii. tab. 86.

*Chêne à grosses cupules.* LAMARCK, Encyclop. Botanique, vol. i. page 719.—*Ang.* The great prickly-cupped oak tree.

‡ “ Native of the LEVANT, whence the acorns are annually brought to EUROPE for dyeing; they are called *velani*, and the tree *velanida*, by the Greeks.” Thus says MARTYN (in his new edition of MILLER's Gardener's and Botanist's Dictionary, article *quercus*); but, highly as we respect his authority, we prefer following our Author, whose information must, unquestionably, have been derived from the natives themselves.—*Translator.*

Turkish,

Turkish, of which the Orientals make a very great consumption during the whole year: they put it into ragouts; they employ it, in lieu of sugar and honey, in most of their choice dishes; in short they make of it, with sesamum reduced to paste, a sort of *nogat*, or almond-like cake, which would not be despised in EUROPE. I saw a great deal of it at CONSTANTINOPLE, at the DARDANELLES, and in most of the towns of TURKEY. The process consists in mixing those two substances in boilers exposed to a moderate fire, and in stirring it about without interruption, with a large wooden spatula, till the mixture be sufficiently thickened. It is poured on large slabs of marble or sheets of copper, and by its cooling, are obtained cakes which are made an inch and a half in thickness. This nogat is sold retail, at five or six sous a pound.

During the winter, there are on the marshes and the rivers of TROAS, a prodigious number of ducks, herons, snipes, plovers, and other aquatic birds. We there saw a great many wild swans, scoters, and water-hens. Gulls and sea-swallows keep more commonly in the channel. In Floréal, we made a tolerably good collection of plants and insects: we were surprised at the quantity of snakes that we met with. As the grass was high and tufted, we walked with some precaution, fearing that these reptiles might be venomous. It was probably the season of their loves, for they were almost always two by two. Notwithstanding their size, their hissing, and their sparkling eyes, they were not of the race of those of which fable reminds us. These fled at our approach, and appeared by no means disposed to dart at us, and make us undergo the fate of LAOCOON and his sons.

## CHAPTER IV.

*An account of Alexandria-Troas and its environs.—Arrival at Tenedos.—Description of that island.—Its productions.—Manners of its inhabitants.*

**I**F the city of TROY no longer affords traces of its existence; if the palace of PRIAM, the citadel, the temples, and the walls of the city have been destroyed to its very foundations; if the ruins of a considerable city have been able to disappear totally, that which, several ages after, was intended to supply its place, although destroyed itself, still presents at this day the marks of its ancient splendour. An opinion may be formed of its extent from its walls, and of its magnificence from the remains of its monuments: the prodigious quantity of fragments of pillars, capitals, and cornices, that are seen scattered about, attest the luxury and riches of its inhabitants.

Six leagues to the south of Cape SIGEUM, are found the ruins of the city which ALEXANDER ordered to be erected in memory of that of TROY, which had long ceased to exist. ANTIGONUS, one of his lieutenants, to whose lot ASIA MINOR fell after his death, laid the foundations of it, at the same time that he rebuilt SMYRNA, and brought back thither the inhabitants dispersed by the Lydians. ANTIGONUS gave his name to the city which he founded; but LYSIMACHUS, who possessed it afterwards, restored to it the name of the conqueror who had first drawn the plan of it. He embellished it, and gave it greater extent. Having passed under the domination of the Romans, it became, under AUGUSTUS, one of the handsomest cities of the EAST. Under ADRIAN, HERODES ATTICUS, governor  
of

of the free towns of ASIA, constructed a superb aqueduct, a few traces of which are still to be seen. It is probable that it was a part of the waters of the SCAMANDER which he had brought thither; for no others exist in the environs, which are sufficiently abundant to supply the wants of a great city.

I shall not undertake to describe the remains of the monuments that ALEXANDRIA-TROAS presents at the present day: on this subject, the reader may consult the travellers who have preceded me, such as POCOCKE, WHEELER, CHANDLER, LICHEVALIER, and others.

The walls of the city, those of the houses, of the temples, and of the other monuments, were built of a rather hard shelly stone. The marble of PAROS and that of MARMORA are there pretty common, as well as various sorts of granite. Near the harbour are still to be seen two large marble pillars which the TURKS wished to ship there: they are the remains of those which the sultans have successively carried off in order to construct the greater part of the mosques of CONSTANTINOPLE; one of them was broken in the conveyance.

To the south of the city is a small rivulet of little importance, and to the south-east, near this rivulet, two springs of warm mineral waters, of which the Turks and the Greeks make use without knowing their nature and almost always without success. They are seen to come in crowds, in the spring, from TENEDOS and from TROAS, in order to be purged and to bathe, the one with a view of preventing future complaints; the other, in order to cure some serious disorder, or to obtain only some relief in their infirmities. These waters are more particularly recommended for disorders of the skin, the leprosy, and *syphilis*.

The Harbour has very little extent; it is almost choked up; and its entrance is obstructed by the sands which the stream of the waters of the **HERLISPORT** and the movement of the waves of the sea insensibly bring on the coast of **TROAS**. This harbour would not at this day suffice for the maritime commerce of a town at all considerable, situated in such a manner as to serve as a staple for the neighbouring countries; but at a time when this commerce was limited, when merchant-vessels were scarcely as capacious as our large boats, when they were incessantly in activity in a climate where navigation is never suspended nor relaxed, it may be conceived that a small number of vessels might suffice for the exportation of the surplus of a country-town, and bring back from the neighbouring countries all the commodities that the wants or the luxury of its inhabitants demanded.

This harbour formed a sort of semi-circular basin, separated from the sea by a jetty: it is sheltered from the north and north-west winds by **Cape TOUZELIK** and by a range of rocks situated beside its entrance.

History makes no mention of the epoch in which this city was destroyed: it already no longer existed when the Turks came to establish themselves in this country; for, according to **LEUNCLAVIUS**, before **SOLIMAN**, son of **ORKHAN**, went into the Chersonesus of **THRACE** and came to besiege **GALLIPOLI**, he walked for a long time over the site of **TROY**, contemplating with admiration the walls partly crumbled away of that great city, the ruins of its immense edifices, and that prodigious quantity of marbles and granites which were there heaped up.

The environs of **ALEXANDRIA-TROAS** present a fertile soil, forming a plain, on which the *velani* oak grows in abundance, and without culture.

This

This plain is separated from that of *TROY* by a few hills more or less elevated. A mountain which makes a continuation of those of *IDA*, presents itself two or three leagues to the east, and extends towards the south: thence to *Cape Baba*, the ground appears uneven, more or less fertile, towards the sea; mountainous and wooded up the country. But before we direct our route to the south, let us cross to *TENELOS*, and cast an eye on what it affords most curious and most interesting.

On the 16th of *Pluviose* (4th of February) we left *ALEXANDER'S TROY* in a ticklish caïque which we had sent for from the first castle of *ASIA*; and as the weather was very fine and the temperature of the air very mild, we were extremely glad to follow the coast as far as *KOUM-BOTRNO* or *Sandy Cape*, and to land from time to time. We found nothing remarkable throughout all this space: we looked in vain for some vestiges of ancient cities, some traces of *LARISSA*, which geographers place towards that cape: nothing offered itself to our eyes. The coast is low and sandy; the plain is fertile, almost uncultivated, and crossed by a rivulet called *SUDIV-SOU*, swelled sometimes in winter by the rain waters: this rivulet grows wider at its mouth, and there forms a few marshes. I am ignorant of the name that it bore in antiquity. We set out in the afternoon from the pitch of the cape, and, by rowing, we arrived early at the harbour of *TENELOS*.

The distance from that island to the nearest coast is no more than a league and a half\*: it is reckoned about five from the town to the entrance of the *HELLESPONT*. The harbour is small, and can receive only merchant-vessels: it is formed by a jetty even with the water's edge, and a tongue of land on which is constructed the citadel that defends the entrance, and

\* *STRABO* fixes the distance from *TENELOS*, to the nearest coast, at eleven *stada*, or one thousand three hundred and seventy-five paces. We think it nearly three thousand *toises*.

can at most secure it against being surpris'd by a privateer. The town is built in the form of a semi circle, in a valley, and on the declivity of two hills: its population is from five to six thousand souls, to judge of it from its extent, and from the number of persons who pay the karatch.

At TENEDOS are reckoned as many Turks as Greeks, almost all occupied in the culture of the lands: few among them are mariners. The greater part of the former are attached to the duty of the citadel.

There is a waiwode or governor, an aga commandant of the citadel, under the orders of the waiwode, and a cadî or judge. The janizaries of the town, to the number of two or three hundred, are obliged to defend the place in case of attack, and to perform a daily duty, from which they have long since exempted themselves. In the citadel are still seen a few Venetian guns without carriages, which seem to be there only for the purpose of recalling to mind that this island belonged to that trading nation before the arrival of the Turks in these countries

This island, scantily peopled and ill defended, pass'd betimes under the Ottoman domination. During the minority of MAHOMET IV. the Venetians retook it after the complete defeat of the Turkish fleet in the strait by Admiral MOCENIGO, in 1656; but, the following year, the admiral having been killed in a second engagement, the Venetian fleet retired, and this island again fell into the power of the Turks, who have preserved it without interruption till the present day.

The town is commanded by a pyramidal mountain of small elevation, which appears to have been formed by the action of a volcano, the traces of which are discoverable on all the ground that extends thence to the sea

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in the north part. In the environs is found a granite remarkable from pieces more or less large of felspar crystallized.

On going out of the town and directing your route towards the west, you leave this mountain to the right, and enter into a sandy plain far from fertile, and almost entirely covered with vines. The hills, in general, are naked, dry, and little susceptible of culture. Those which are discovered to the south of the town are calcareous; the rock is more or less chalky and loaded with sea shells. We remarked few fruit-trees: neither are the ALEPPO pine and the *velani* oak here in greater plenty. We killed a few rabbits on the hills; but this kind of game is scarce; the red partridge and the hare are met with more frequently. As for the woodcock and the quail, they prefer, as we were informed, resting themselves, during their passage, on TROAS or in the other islands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

TENEDOS produces little corn, little fruit, and little herbage; very little cotton and sesamum are there gathered. The vine is the only article of wealth of this country, and its culture the principal occupation of the inhabitants: it delights in the light, sandy, and deep lands of the plain; it thrives extremely well too towards the foot of the hills, and in all the places susceptible of culture. The vines are planted at an equal distance from each other, and more or less space is left between them, according to the goodness of the soil. Two dressings are regularly given, the one in winter, the other in spring: the vine is trimmed before the end of the winter, as in our southern departments, and the vintage begins in the first days of Fructidor: but at that period the grape is already so ripe, so sweet, and so saccharine, that fermentation would take place too slowly, were not a certain quantity of water added. The inhabitants are accustomed to put in a fourth part at the moment when the grape is received into the vat. With this method, vicious as it is, they obtain a spirituous wine of a tolerably

good quality. We drank some at the houses of a few rich private persons, which we should have taken for excellent BOURDEAUX wine, if we had not been apprised: true it is that it was made with more care than that intended for trade, and that it had received but a sixth part of water: besides, it was old and kept in bottle. We also drank, at a Greek bishop's, some excellent muscadel wine red and white, which was by no means inferior to the best Frontignac. No water is put to the latter: the grape is stoned; it is pressed, and squeezed as expeditiously as possible, and it is left to ferment without the lees for some time. About the middle of the winter, it is put into casks or jars: it is then poured off a second time, and kept in earthen pots, varnished, which are carefully corked.

The manner of making muscadel wine inclines us to think that it is rather with a view of obtaining a greater quantity of wine, than with that of hastening and promoting fermentation, that water is added to the expressed juice of the grape. Avidity induces the greater part of the inhabitants to exceed the proportions; they sometimes add too great a quantity of water; which causes their wine to turn sour before they have found an opportunity of selling it.

This liquor pays to the imperial treasury at the rate of two parats the oke, which duty is levied on the vender. The farmer of this tax proceeds, immediately after the vintage, to the houses and store-houses of private persons, in order to make an estimate of the wine that they have, and fix the quantity which they are to drink, and which they may sell. He causes himself to be paid in proportion to the sale, according to the estimate that has been made, and sometimes he takes the liberty of requiring it in advance, being almost always certain in this matter of being supported by a waiwode and a cadi as unjust as himself.

There are annually exported from TENEDOS upwards of six hundred thousand okes of wine, which produce to the farmer more than 30,000 piaftres. This wine paffes to CONSTANTINOPLE, to SMYRNA, and into RUSSIA. It is preferred to the wine of *RODOSTO* and to that of the Island of *THASSOS*, fituated near the continent, to the north-west of TENEDOS. There is alfo exported a fmall quantity of brandy, which pays four parats per oke duty.

Although the Turks poffefs vineyards, yet they do not allow themfelves to make wine: they are equally prohibited from it by the law of the State and the religion of the Prophet. They fell their grapes to Greek traders, after having taken out what they wifh to keep for their winter-ftock, and put apart what they intend to make into confecñion.

The climate of TENEDOS is ftill more temperate than that of the *DARDANELLES*: the cold is never fharply felt there; it feldom freezes, and the fummer heats are tempered by the north north-eaft wind, which blows regularly during the day. The houfes have terraces or flat roofs inftead of ridged ones; and although the greater part of them are conftituted with mafonry, there is not to be remarked in them the elegance and folidity of thofe of *SCIO* and of the iflands at all confiderable of the *ARCHIPELAGO*, which have belonged to the Genoefe and the Venetians.

At TENEDOS, the Greeks have not that gaiety which they are feen to poffefs in the other iflands: filent and melancholy in the itreets, they fcarcely dare take a little recreation in their own houfes: they avoid noify pleasures which would infallibly draw on them the attention of the Turks, and awaken all their cupidity; but when they can without danger, they give themfelves up to a fort of extravagant joy and delirium. The coaft of

TROY is frequently the theatre of their orgies or the field of their pleasures: thither they repair on the occasion of a wedding or of a festival, and there, under the plane-tree or the oak, they pass the whole day in dancing, singing, eating, and drinking.

The Greek, under whose roof we lodged, thought, in his capacity of agent of the Republic, that he might, before our departure, give at his house an entertainment, to which he invited the principal inhabitants of the town. A great number of women of all ages also came thither. Wine was not spared: the musicians were numerous: the dancing, at first grave, slow, and in measure, was afterwards so quick, and so tumultuous among the men, that the floor partly gave way; but as no one was hurt, it continued not the less, on that account, in another room, and was prolonged to a late hour of the night. Bacchanalian songs succeeded amorous ditties, and singing gave place to bawling when the party had emptied a great number of flasks.

However, the women though gay, departed not from their usual reserve: there reigned among them the greatest decorum: their dancing was always grave; their songs continued to be soft and agreeable: they mixed not with the men, and neither participated in their ebriety nor in their delirium. Almost all the young ones were handsome: some among them struck us by their beauty; they might well be compared, from their features and their shape, to the most beautiful models that antiquity has transmitted to us.

We should have been glad to direct our steps to the Islands of LEMNOS, IMBROS, and SAMOTHRACE; we could have wished to examine, in the first, the traces of the volcano of which history and fable seem to make mention, to see its vast harbours, and the productions of its fertile territory. The other two, which we had perceived for a long time past, excited our curiosity.

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from their elevation, from the woods by which they are covered, and from what was related to us of the Greek tribes by which they are inhabited. But finding no vessel in the harbour of TENEDOS for those islands, and not caring, in the middle of winter, to trust ourselves in a caïque, we determined to take advantage of a large decked boat that was setting sail for MITYLENE.

## CHAPTER V.

*Arrival at Lesbos.—Description of that island.—Its population and its commerce.*

WE sailed from Tenedos on the 24th of Pluviôse (12th of February) at eight o'clock in the morning, with a light breeze from the north. We ranged along the coast of Asia, and found ourselves at noon off Cape BABA, formerly the promontory *Leucos*. Our skipper would have allowed us to land at the town situated to the east of the cape, had he not been afraid of not arriving before night at Port *Petra*. He consented, however, to follow for some time longer the coast which we wished to examine.

The town, situated by the sea-side, on a sloping ground, has a small harbour for boats: ships and vessels thwarted by the north wind, sometimes anchor two or three cables' length from the harbour till the wind changes. On that day were lying here two vessels, the one a Venetian, the other a Ragusan, which, under shelter of the cape, had been waiting for upwards of a fortnight, the return of the southerly wind in order to enter the Hellespont, and proceed to Constantinople.

BABA appeared to us a very small town: it is very famous in Turkey, for the knife and sword blades which are there manufactured for the use of the Orientals. We were told that it was peopled by as many Turks as Greeks; its soil is tolerably good, and furnishes the same productions as that of Troas.

The coast, from the cape to the place where we quitted it, for a space of two or three leagues, appeared to us volcanic: it is lofty, steep, and reddish. The interior of the country is mountainous and wooded. On receding from the coast, we perceived cultivated spots and flocks, which still announce some inhabitants on the ruins of *Assos*, or in the environs of that town.

As the sun was going down, we hastened to arrive at Port *PETRA*, in which we cast anchor before dark. This harbour, or to speak more correctly, this road, is situated to the north of *LESBOS*. It is open to the north-west; which raised a swell on the water: ships, however, anchor there in safety with all winds, because the waves are stopped by some rocks that lie at the entrance, and because the coast of *ASIA*, the distance of which is only two or three leagues, does not admit of the sea being very rough in this channel with winds from the north and north-west.

There were on board two janizaries to whom we had been recommended by a rich Turk belonging to *TENEDOS*. Impatient to arrive at *MITYLENE*, and apprehensive of being delayed if they continued their route by sea, they landed at *PETRA*, in the intention of crossing the island. I immediately seized this opportunity and proposed to accompany them. I took with me a servant: Citizen *BRUGUIERE* remained on board with another, in order to have an eye to our baggage, which we could not intrust to Greek servants whose probity appeared to us suspicious, nor to mariners of that nation with whom we were not acquainted.

The village of *PETRA*, thus named on account of a large insulated rock of granite which lies in the middle, is situated in a plain towards the sea-shore: here are but two or three hundred inhabitants Turks and Greeks, almost all cultivators. It is surrounded by volcanic mountains, and it has

a small plain which joins to that of *MOLIVO*. The Greek women of this village wear a head-dress extremely high, similar in some degree to a mitre.

As we found no horses at *PETRA*, the janizaries proposed to me to go and sleep at *MOLIVO*, distant nearly a league. This village is to the east of *PETRA*, on a rising ground at no great distance from the sea: it is built on rocks of basalt, precisely in the spot formerly occupied by *METHYMNA*. It is commanded by a castle almost in ruins, constructed by the Genoese: here are still to be seen scattered about a few dismounted or broken cannons.

The population of *MOLIVO* may be estimated at two or three thousand inhabitants, as well Turks as Greeks. Its territory is formed of a plain by no means extensive, very fertile, and surrounded by volcanic mountains. Its productions consist principally in oil, corn, and barley. It furnishes a little wine and various fruits. Cotton and several kitchen-garden plants are here likewise gathered.

*MOLIVO* possesses, as formerly, distinguished musicians. In order to dispel the *ennui* of the janizaries, while we were waiting for supper, there was brought to us a young Greek named *PETRAKI TANGROS*, who was justly reckoned the most able singer and the greatest musician of *LESBOS*. This young man, whom a careful education would have rendered still more estimable, possessed a comely person, an agreeable voice, a quick understanding, and a sprightly disposition. He had several times exercised his talents as a poet and musician at the capital of the island, and was to repair in a few days to *SMYRNA*, whence a virtuoso, whose pupil and relation he was, had just sent for him. I fancied I beheld in him a descendant of *ARION*, that famous lyric poet to whom *METHYMNA* had given birth within its walls, or of that *THERPANDER* who improved the lyre, and succeeded in quelling a sedition by the melody of his singing.

We lodged at the house of a Mussulman who, for a slight retribution, was in the habit of shewing hospitality to those of his religion whom chance or business brought to MOLIVO. He presented us for our supper a pilau and some olives: a bad sofa served as a bed for us all: my clothes I put over me in lieu of a coverlid, because that which was offered me, appeared to me too much worn and too dirty.

Our boat set sail the next day, at the same time that our landlord brought us mules, which had a tolerably good appearance, and with which we had reason to be satisfied. Notwithstanding the interest and the efforts of my two fellow-travellers, I was not able to procure a saddle. I was under the necessity of contenting myself with a sort of pack-saddle, on which a carpet was spread. True it is that the people of the country travel in no other manner: there are none but the agas who have saddles, which they take good care not to lend, especially to *infidels*. We returned and passed through PETRA; we crossed several mountains entirely volcanic, and, after a forced march of six hours, arrived at a little village situated in the plain which lies at the head of Port CALONI. This plain is two leagues in extent: its principal culture consists in corn, cotton, and olive-trees: figs, musk and water melons, pumpkins, and various legumes, are also here gathered. Here are seen several villages; but population is not in proportion to the fertility and the extent of the soil fit to be put into a state of culture. The air is so unwholesome in this quarter, that, in certain years, a great number of people die. I was assured that here were villages where none but lepers were to be found; in others, the face of all the inhabitants sufficiently indicates that they are exposed to intermittent fevers, and remittent putrid ones, and to all the disorders which originate in the environs of marshes. There are no other than poor Greek cultivators in all these unhealthful villages: the Turks, proprietors of lands, prefer a residence at MITYLENE, MOLIVO, and the other places the best situated in the island.

Port *CALONI* lies in the middle of the southern part of *LESBOS*: it is very extensive, very safe, yet little frequented. There are none but vessels thwarted by the wind, or buffeted by a storm, which go and anchor there: not one enters it to take in a cargo, or unload that which she has on board.

Our dinner was soon over: we had not alighted from our mules an hour when we remounted them. We proceeded for three hours across other volcanic mountains, after which we arrived in another plain situated at the head of Port *YERO* or Port *OLIVIER*, thus named on account of the great number of olive-trees which are planted in the plain and on the declivity of the mountains and hills that surround it. In the eastern part of the harbour, there are a few calcareous hills which have not been attacked by the fire of volcanoes. Here is found, near the sea, a spring of hot mineral water, rather copious, on which the inhabitants of *MITYLENE* set a very high value.

These waters are reckoned aperitive in the country. People go and drink them, and bathe in them, in the intention of promoting urine, and procuring themselves some relief in most chronic diseases. I was told that they operate as a slight purgative when they are taken in a somewhat large quantity. I think them nitrous, to judge of them from their virtue and the little flavour that they possess. *HUSSEIN*, captain-pacha, has just built here a basin capable of containing ten or twelve persons: he has at the same time repaired the building which is occupied by the Turk charged to receive all those who wish to make use of these waters.

Port *OLIVIER*, very well drawn by *M. DE CHOISEUL\**, is one of the safest and most spacious harbours of the *ARCHIPELAGO*: it is at the eastern

\* *Voyage Pittoresque de la Grèce*, pl. 43.

and southern extremity of the island: it is said to abound with fishes and conchylia: among others are found very good oysters, which are carried to SCIO and SMYRNA. It is frequented, during the whole year, by boats and vessels that come thither to load with the oil which is made in the environs.

From the mineral waters to MITYLENE, it is nearly two leagues. We crossed a volcanic mountain, and reached the town by a very steep road. But, before we arrived there, we had from the top of this mountain a prospect which we could not tire in admiring: MITYLENE and its territory presented themselves to us; we saw distinctly its two harbours, as well as the boats, the galleys, and the ships which were there at anchor; we measured the extent of the channel that separates LESBOS from the continent; we perceived the numerous islands which lie along the coast of ASIA: farther on, the main land, its high mountains covered with wood, its vallies extremely fertile, well watered, and cultivated: all this assemblage presented a picture whose beauty was heightened by the rays of the setting sun, which were escaping behind us through a sky partly covered with clouds.

Being favoured by the wind, our boat had arrived at an early hour, and anchored in the south harbour. Citizen BRUGUIÈRE had caused our baggage to be landed, and taken a lodging in a convent of Greek monks.

The two harbours of MITYLENE are separated by a tongue of land, on which was constructed by the Genoese a citadel that the Turks have preserved. The upper or north harbour is secured from the north-east wind by a jetty, the origin of which is carried back to ancient GREECE. The south harbour is open and faces the south-east: it is a little less extensive and less deep than the other: there are none but the boats of the country that can anchor in it, while the north harbour can admit small merchant-vessels. Men of war, and European ships which commerce attracts to MITYLENE, anchor

anchor in summer off the south harbour; but they scarcely expose themselves there in winter, because there happen sometimes, in that season, very impetuous gales from the north-east, which might occasion their destruction, or oblige them to cut their cables and get under sail with all expedition.

There was formerly a canal of communication, between these two harbours, which separated the tongue of land that I have just mentioned, and formed of it an island, on which was built part of the town. Time has choked up the canal, but it has not been able to destroy the jetty which ran from the little island, and sheltered the north harbour from the worst weather.

MITYLENE, sometimes called at this day *CASTRO* or *METELIN*, contains two or three thousand Greeks, three or four thousand Turks, and thirty or forty Jewish families. The citadel is spacious, provided with cannon in tolerably good condition, and defended by five or six hundred janizaries, almost all married and settled. Within it are two mosques and a great number of houses occupied by this militia. The modern town extends in a semi-circle along the north harbour, on a part of the ground occupied by the ancient city. The truncated pieces of pillars employed in the edifices, the remains of capitals, the fragments of marble and granite that are seen every where, attest its importance and bespeak the rank which it formerly held. Some remains of inscriptions which travellers have transmitted to us are still visible. In the court of the Greek convent where we slept, is a chair of white marble, on which may be read:

ΠΟΤΑΜΩΝΟΣ  
ΑΕΣΒΟΝΑΚΤΟΣ  
ΠΡΟΕΔΡΙΑ

*Seat of POTAMON, Son of LESBONAX.*

THIS POTAMON, born at MITYLENE, was a distinguished rhetorician, who lived at ROME under the Emperor TIBERUS. Wishing to return to his country, and there establish a chair of eloquence, he obtained from TIBERUS letters, in which it was expressly mentioned that whoever should dare to insult POTAMON, would insult in his person the emperor himself\*.

LESBOS groaned a long time under particular tyrants, and enjoyed only by intervals the charms of liberty. This island successively passed under the domination of the Persians, and under that of the Greeks and Romans. The crusaders established themselves here for a moment, and the Genoese were masters of it when the empire of the EAST fell into the hands of the Turks.

While the Greeks were tearing each other to pieces for religious opinions, as absurd as incomprehensible, while ambitious men were agitating the capital and the provinces in order to arrive more expeditiously at the throne, the Turks, on the one hand, were making themselves masters of the finest provinces of ASIA and threatening CONSTANTINOPLE; two nations of navigators, on the other, were establishing themselves by degrees in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in most of the maritime towns of the BLACK SEA, on the BOSPHORUS, and even in GALATA, one of the suburbs of the capital. The seas of the LEVANT were covered with their vessels, and the productions of the EAST no longer passed through any hands but theirs.

LESBOS was under the domination of the Genoese, when MAHOMET II. ten years after the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE, equipped a considerable fleet in order to make himself master of it. MITYLENE, METHYMNA, and most of the places of this island had been well fortified: the knights of

\* HESYCHIUS, *de viris claris*.

RHODES had had time to send some succour to the former, and the inhabitants, who knew the cruelties which the Turks had committed at the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE, were well disposed to defend their lives. The Ottoman forces, although very considerable, would undoubtedly have miscarried against thousands of heroes, had the prince, named *GATTILUSIO*, had the courage of his soldiers, and had he not given his confidence to *LUCCO* *GATTILUSIO* his cousin, an ambitious and imprudent man, who thought, by the promise which was made to him of it in writing, to obtain the sovereignty of the island by delivering it up to MAHOMET.

LUCCO, after having himself opened to the enemy one of the gates of the town, persuaded his weak cousin to sign a shameful capitulation, under the chimerical hope of being indemnified for the sacrifice which he was making. But as a reward for the treachery of the one, and for the weakness of the other, MAHOMET caused them to be cruelly put to death a short time after: a terrible lesson, which traitors and cowards should have incessantly before their eyes, and by which they should profit for their own advantage.

LESBOS gave birth to a few great men, among whom are to be remarked more particularly *ALCÆUS*, a lyric poet, who declaimed so long against tyranny: *SAPPHO*, that poetess, whom antiquity has placed among the Muses, and who was impelled by an unfortunate passion to precipitate herself from the promontory *LEUCATES*; *THEOPHRASTUS*, a disciple of *PLATO* and *ARISTOTLE*, whose eloquence was so persuasive, and whose philosophy was so amiable; lastly *PITTACUS*, whom GREECE ranks among her sages, furnishes an example very rare, and which cannot be too much quoted, of a man more jealous of glory than power, more occupied with the happiness of his fellow-citizens than with his own; of a man, in short, who conceived and executed the project of usurping power, in order to restore liberty to his country.

<sup>d</sup> I might quote, in more modern times, the two BARBAROSSAS, brothers, sons of a potter, who, from simple sailors, became famous pirates, and were afterwards, in succession, sovereigns of ALGIERS. The younger, appointed High Admiral by SOLIMAN I. is more known than his brother in the history of the Ottoman Empire.

Although the island is exposed in winter to sudden gales of wind from the north-east and the east, which come from the mountains of ASIA, as well as to the north wind which reigns over the whole ARCHIPELAGO, the climate there is, nevertheless, tolerably fine, and the temperature of the air somewhat mild. It seldom freezes in that season; but, in summer, the heat is rather powerful on the south coast, and the air is, in general, more unwholesome there than in the other parts of the island.

At LESBOS are reckoned eight thousand Greeks paying the karatch, from the age of seven to their death, which may induce us to estimate their population at near twenty thousand, including the women and the children above that age. It is thought that there are nearly as many Turks as Greeks in the island, which contains in all forty thousand inhabitants. The Jews are not sufficiently numerous to be taken into the calculation.

The island is divided into lordships; but whereas the aga of other countries is obliged to join the land-forces when required, at LESBOS, he is subject to a maritime duty, from which he almost always finds means to exempt himself by making some pecuniary sacrifices.

Through a custom undoubtedly very ancient, and which the author of the *Voyage littéraire de la Grèce* has very properly remarked, the eldest daughter inherits alone, in this island, the property of the father and mother, to the exclusion of the sons and the other daughters. This custom, which time

had converted into a law, was respected and religiously followed, although every child had the power of having recourse to a Turkish tribunal, and of invoking the sacred rights of nature. Within a short time the patriarch of CONSTANTINOPLE, the archbishop and all the clergy of MITYLENE, have somewhat modified this law by admitting all the daughters to the partition in the following proportion. The first born receives one-third of the inheritance, the second has for her share one-third of the portion which her sister has left; the third has in like manner a third, and so on to the last, always beginning again to divide what remains, the third being deducted in the order of primogeniture.

The mountains of the island, which I crossed, are all wooded; the ALEPPO pine grows there in abundance and attains a considerable size: the stone pine is also seen there, and some stalk-fruited oaks; the arbutus, the andrachne, the lentisk, the turpentine-tree, the myrtle, the agnus castus, a few leguminous shrubs, and several rock-roses, among which I distinguished that which yields the ladanum, are there scattered in great quantities. The *velani* oak is more common on the rising grounds and in the plains than on the mountains. The elm grows in the low and watered places, and the plane-tree is scarcely to be met with but on the brinks of the rivulets and torrents. The inhabitants, by means of fire, draw from the pine a tolerably large quantity of pitch, for the use of the dock-yard established near the south harbour, or for the careening of the vessels and boats which come to MITYLENE for that purpose. It is from the coast of ASIA that the best timber for ship-building is obtained. It is there in great plenty; but as it is troublesome and expensive to be procured, the Turks confine themselves to that which grows at no great distance from the sea.

The quantity of oil which is exported from this island in ordinary seasons is estimated at upwards of fifty thousand quintals. Almost the whole of it is sent

sent to CONSTANTINOPLE. The French formerly drew hence a great deal, and had a vice-consul established at MITYLENE: the government has abolished the vice-consulate since the merchants have confined themselves to the oils of CANDIA and of the MOREA, which they find cheaper than those of LESBOS.

This oil is, in general, but of an indifferent quality, because the inhabitants not having a sufficiency of mills are obliged to gather their olives slowly. Those which fall from the tree, and remain some time on the ground, spoil more or less quickly, according as the weather is more or less damp and rainy: besides, they are accustomed, before they send olives to the mill, to keep them heaped up in places by no means spacious, and to throw over them a quantity of marine salt, with a view of preventing their fermentation, and keeping them, as long as possible, from decay.

ITALY draws from MITYLENE eight thousand quintals of *velanida*, a part of which comes from the coast of ASIA. Dried figs are an article of exportation of little importance, as well as wool.

Cotton, sesamum, silk, honey, wax, and different species of grain, are gathered in a small quantity; but the last are not sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants, who draw a great deal of wheat and barley from the coast of ASIA. They also import oxen, horses, and mules, for agriculture and draught, as well as part of the sheep that are killed at the slaughter-houses.

Wine is scarce at the present day, because a great part of the grapes is employed by the Turks in making confection, and because the Greeks are accustomed to convert the other into brandy. In order to procure some, we were under the necessity of applying to the caloyers and to the richest Greeks, and that which was brought to us sustained very ill the reputation that the

wine of **LESBOS** formerly enjoyed: it was sweet and ill flavoured, as are, in general, all the wines of the **ARCHIPELAGO**.

There are no rivers in **LESBOS**: a few torrents, by no means extensive, receive in winter the superabundant rain-waters, and carry them to the sea; but there are a great number of springs whose water, very good for drinking, is sufficiently considerable for watering part of the plains, and, by that means, procuring to the inhabitants, legumes, herbage, and fruits.

CHAPTER VI.

*Arrival at Scio.—Description of the island.—Manners and industry of the inhabitants.—Privileges.—Antiquities.—Natural history.—Productions and commerce.*

ON the 28th of Pluviôse (16th of February) the wind being faint at east-north-east, the weather very fine, and the sea almost smooth, we embarked about seven o'clock in the morning in a large decked boat, which was getting under sail for Scio. We soon doubled Cape *MALEA*, or Cape *SANTA MARIA*: we passed at a little distance from Port *OLIVIER*, and already saw very distinctly the Island of Scio, when the wind died away by degrees, and left us becalmed: but it soon sprang up again, and blew from the south-east without interruption all the rest of the day. We hugged the wind as closely as possible; we also made use of our oars; but, notwithstanding our efforts, we could not reach the *SPALMADORI* Islands, so that we found ourselves at sunset to the northward of the Island of Scio. The night was calm: we followed the coast by means of our oars; and, on the 29th (17th of February) at sun-rise, we entered the harbour, situated in the middle of the east coast.

The harbour of Scio, whose entrance is indicated by two light-houses, is closed towards the south-east by a jetty almost even with the water's edge. Sufficiently spacious formerly for the trade of the island, and of all the *ARCHIPELAGO*, it is daily becoming choked up, without the Turks being at the smallest expense to remove the obstructions and keep it in order.

The citadel, built by the Genoese, commands the harbour; an esplanade, somewhat extensive, separates it from the town, and a ditch dug all round is intended to receive the waters of the sea in case of siege. The fortifications are regular, although ancient: they are fallen into ruins in several places, and the guns are at this day almost without carriages, with the exception of the battery which defends the entrance of the harbour. The inside of the citadel is full of houses, capable of lodging with ease the seven or eight hundred janizaries who constitute the whole strength of the island; but they are partly in ruins, and the Turks, as is well known, have much more inclination to pull down than to set up.

The town is large and well built; the streets are straight, paved, and tolerably clean; the houses are high, all in masonry, the greater part of hewn stone: sandstone, or calcareous stone, is made use of indiscriminately. From a few districts of the island is procured a hard, reddish sandstone, with a very fine grain, which is employed with advantage for the jams of the doors and windows, for paving the ground-floor, and for building the façades of the churches. It is, no doubt, this stone which was anciently distinguished by the name of jasper, and of which STRABO, PLINY, and CICERO have spoken.

It is the custom at SCIO to make, in the centre of the houses, a spacious apartment, very lofty, which the inhabitants use in summer during the heat of the day. They breathe a pure air, evening and morning, on the terrace or flat roof of the houses, and at the same time they enjoy the prospect of the country and of the sea.

SCIO, as to its extent, is somewhat less considerable than LESBOS. Its length from north to south is about fifty miles: its breadth varies greatly, on account of the windings which the coast presents: it is nearly twelve miles

towards the south part, and fifteen towards the north part. It is separated from ASIA by a channel, whose width is at least eight or nine miles.

The town is commanded, to the west and to the north, by schistose, granitical hills, rather arid, but, nevertheless, susceptible of culture. To the north-west of these hills are seen nothing but calcareous mountains, almost naked, which scarcely leave between them a few spaces, that the rural industry of the inhabitants can turn to account. To the south of the town, the eye extends with more pleasure over a plain two leagues in extent, extremely fertile, covered with beautiful country houses, and adorned with gardens more or less spacious, in which are cultivated all the fruits of EUROPE, and most of its legumes.

The orange-tree, the common lemon-tree, the sweet Seville orange-tree and the *cédrat* or bergamot citron-tree\*, are there scattered with profusion and crowded together without order. The fig-tree, the pomegranate-tree, and the plum-tree, are in rather less plenty. The peach-tree, the apricot-tree, the almond-tree, and the black mulberry-tree, are also to be met with. The rose-tree is cultivated every where in good lands, as well as in those of an indifferent quality. The solanum melongena, the hibiscus esculentus, the musk-melon, the cucumber, and the water-melon, occupy the spaces which are not planted.

These gardens are watered by a few springs, which flow from the neighbouring mountains, or by wells from which the water is raised by means of a

\* *Cédrat, cédra, or citronnier-bergamote.* This is a variety of the *citrus medica* of LINNÆUS. It is the *citrus mella-rosa* of LAMARCK. The *cédrat* is distinguished from the common citron-tree by its leaf, which has the odour of the rose; by its fruit, which is red; and by the pistil of its flower, which is short. From the rind of the fruit of this tree, the perfume called *bergamot* is extracted.—*Translator.*

wheel and two ropes, to which are adapted earthen pots placed the one after the other.

Beyond this plain, and in all the south part of the island, the lands are almost every where susceptible of culture, although they are, in general, of middling quality. The ground is less elevated, less uneven, than in the north part, and the population is there more considerable.

According to the registers of the government, the population of SCIO is to be estimated at one hundred and ten thousand inhabitants. In the capital are reckoned thirty thousand; namely: three thousand five hundred Turks, one thousand five hundred Greek Roman catholics, and twenty-five thousand Greek schismatics: about one hundred Jews may be added to this calculation. There are sixty-eight villages in the island, all inhabited by Greeks. The villages which furnish mastic, to the number of twenty-four, are the most populous and the most rich: *PIRGHI*, situated to the west, is the largest of all. *NINITA*, *CALAMOTI*, and *CALIMATIA*, towards the south, are, next to it, the most considerable of the island. *VOLISSO*, situated on the sea-shore, opposite to *PSERA*, is remarkable for the rude and almost savage air of its inhabitants. However, all the villages, whatever may be their extent and situation, are tolerably well built, and have almost all an enclosure capable of securing them from a *coup de main* from a corsair.

The legislator who may wish to observe the influence of institutions and of laws on the morals, character, and industry of man, ought principally to turn his eye towards a people who, living under the same sky, on the same soil, professing the same religion, differ, nevertheless, from themselves to such a degree that they appear incognizable. After having crossed a little arm of the sea, I thought myself transported into another region, into another climate: I had seen the Greek bent under the yoke of the most frightful despotism;

despotism: he was deceitful, rude, timid, ignorant, superstitious, and poor\*: here he enjoys a shadow of liberty; he is honest, civil, bold, industrious, witty, intelligent, and rich. Here I no longer find that mixture of pride and meanness which characterizes the Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of a great part of the LEVANT; that timidity, that cowardice, which is occasioned by perpetual fear, that bigotry which prevents no crime. What distinguishes the inhabitants of SCIO from the other Greeks, is a decided inclination towards commerce, a warm taste for the arts, a keen desire for enterprize; it is a sprightly, pleasant, epigrammatic wit; it is sometimes a sort of mad and burlesque gaiety, which has given rise to the following proverb: “ *It is as uncommon to find a green horse, as a prudent Sciot.*”

However true may be the overstrained meaning of this proverb, in regard to a few inhabitants of SCIO, there are a greater number who know how to combine the most circumspect prudence with the most lively and most amiable sprightliness. No other town in the LEVANT presents so great a mass of information; no other contains so many men exempt from prejudices, full of good sense and reason, and blessed with a head better organized.

Some among them may, nevertheless, be reproached with a ridiculous pride, a misplaced fanaticism. We have seen fools find the gratification of their vanity in a rich portfolio, a fine house, or a numerous set of servants. The ignorant man, who had no personal titles to display in society, thought to be quit towards it in recalling to mind those of his ancestors. The struggle which exists between the two churches, has frequently given rise to scandalous scenes, of which the Turks alone have taken advantage; and the influence of the priesthood is, perhaps, too great in a country that wishes to apply itself to agriculture and commerce.

\* There are some exceptions to be made in the capital.

Notwithstanding their grotesque drefs, (See *PLATE X.*) the women are more amiable than thofe of the capital, becaufe they are more courteous, more gay, more lively, and more witty. They are feen with tolerable freedom at their own home in prefence of their relations, and they enjoy, more than elfewhere, a liberty which they feldom abufe. They fpend, in all feafons, part of the day in finging and working, playing or amufing themfelves before their houfes: they make up to paffengers, frequently fpeak to them firft, without knowing them; aim at them a jeft or an epigram, if the latter difpleafe; pay them a delicate, witty compliment, if they have an agreeable manner, a prepoftreffing countenance. If you answer them in the fame tone, the converfation begins aloud: you exert all your wit and gentility, you laugh, and you part from each other pleafed and gratified.

If you go to the efplanade, into the gardens, and round the town, you will meet, on Sundays and holidays, groups of young damfels, who flop you very frequently, play you a thoufand pranks, ask you for money, offer you flowers and comfits: you may in like manner addrefs yourfelf to them firft, and begin with them by fome pleafantry.

But in this country every thing paffes in converfation with the girls; and the married women are much more referved than one would fuppofe at the firft accefs. It is not that *Scio* does not refemble almoft all the towns of *EUROPE*, and that amorous intrigues do not frequently occur; but fcandal, at leaft, is rare: public prostitutes conceal themfelves, and decorum reigns every where.

Though circumfpect in regard to the Turks whom they meet, the women of *Scio* do not addrefs themfelves to them, nor do they answer their queftions: they know that they would expofe themfelves to fome brutality on their part, or at leaft to fome indecent converfation. But they preferve  
in

in their preference that free air, that confident look, which is not to be seen even in the women of the capital.

Whether easy circumstances and gaiety, under a beautiful sky, alike concur to give to women agreeable forms, regular features, soft and slightly animated colours; or whether the Greek women have less degenerated here than elsewhere from their ancient beauty, it is certain that there are not to be found, in any other country of the **LEVANT**, so many beautiful women as at **SCIO**, and, nevertheless, subjugated by a bad taste; they make too great a use of red, white, and black, which, very far from adding to their charms, cause that softness to disappear, conceal that delicate complexion, destroy that bloom, which every where render women so agreeable and so captivating.

Here they frequent the baths much more seldom than the Greek women of **SMYRNA** and **CONSTANTINOPLE**, and this, perhaps, is the reason why their beauty lasts longer. They attribute the whiteness of their teeth to the almost continual and general custom of having mastic incessantly in their mouth; but, perhaps, they owe this advantage still more to the dislike that they have to smoking, in which the others find an inexpressible pleasure.

Economical and temperate in their family, the richest, as well as the poorest, shew an excessive love of gain. Those less gifted by fortune employ themselves in making stockings, caps, and purses, which they sell to passengers, or carry to their dealers. The rich women embroider handkerchiefs and all the linen in use among the Orientals; several have a frame in their own house, and work at some sort of silk or cotton stuff. Sweetmeats, preserves of roses and orange-flowers, sirups of lemon and bergamot-citron, occupy a great number of women of all ages and of all conditions. It is generally in the country that they breed the silk-worm and spin cotton.

Those who apply themselves more particularly to embroidery, give to the silks which they employ the colours that they wish. They obtain, among others, a gold yellow colour with the branches of the *celtis orientalis* \*, or the leaves of the henné or Egyptian privet; a bright yellow with the flowers of broom, and the stems of the silvery-leaved daphne or tartonraira. The roots of the apple-tree yield them a pale rose colour. The wood of the quince-tree furnishes a very bright flesh colour. They draw from the branches of the peach-tree a bright green, and from the leaves a deep one.

They cut the ligneous substances into little bits, steep them in water for two days, boil them the third day till the liquor is reduced to one half: they strain it through a cloth, add a little alum, and set it again over the fire: As soon as the water boils, they steep their silk for a longer or shorter time, according as they wish to obtain a colour more or less deep.

The red peelings of onions yield them a tolerably bright orange colour yellow: they set them to soak in water for four or five days, and boil them with a little alum: they add a spoonful of cochineal, or of kermes, when they wish to obtain a beautiful red.

The rind of the walnut, while green, which is taken off when they pickle that fruit, affords them a green more or less deep.

They also make use of the galnut, of the cup of the *velani* oak, of madder-root, and of all the colouring substances employed in EUROPE.

In no island of the ARCHIPELAGO, nor in any country of TURKEY, did we see lands so well cultivated, commerce so active, and industry so great, as

\* *Ang.* Oriental nettle-tree.—T.

at Scio. Grounds the most arid, and most stony, improve by degrees under the hand of the Sciot, and become fit to receive some seeds or some useful trees. There is no kind of traffic to which he is a stranger, no hazardous enterprise that he does not attempt. Here no one is idle: he who is not a priest, is most certainly a merchant, manufacturer, artisan, mariner, or cultivator..

If agriculture and industry scarcely leave any thing to be wished for in this island, it is because there is no part of the Ottoman Empire that enjoys more effectual protection, or is more favoured by the government. Here, through a concurrence of fortunate circumstances, private interest is in unison with public interest. As the appanage of a sultana, the island is under her immediate protection. A naib here administers justice for the molla of CONSTANTINOPIE: the latter has an interest in watching over his substitute, and in causing him to be recalled, if the complaints made against him prove well founded. The sultan has granted privileges to the most populous part of the island, to all the villages whose inhabitants cultivate the mastic destined for his seraglio: he has withdrawn them from the rod of the mutselim, and granted them an aga, who particularly farms that valuable commodity. The town likewise enjoys a great number of privileges, of which I shall speak farther on. Lastly, the governor, who at the same time farms the custom-house duties and taxes, applies himself to make the most of the one, by the protection and the accommodation which he grants to the merchants and cultivators; he does not indulge himself with regard to others in persecutions, and ruinous exactions, which too frequently overset the fortune of the tributary subjects in the other towns. Here the poor man as well as the rich one, the cultivator as well as the merchant, the villager as well as the inhabitant of the town, are all alike protected, all may alike prefer their complaints, all may demand and obtain the removal of a man who should abuse too much the authority intrusted to him.

The custom-house duty is regulated at five per cent. as well in regard to the Greeks as to the Mussulmans; and from the estimate which is made of the cloths manufactured in the country, it follows that they scarcely pay three per cent. on being exported.

As for the taxes, their assessment is made, for the inhabitants of the town, by the general primates or chiefs of the district; the *yeronda*, or particular primate of each village, fixes those of the cultivators of his canton. The first of these taxes is laid on property and industry; it ought to be levied at the rate of one piastre on five hundred of income, if the canons of sultan SELIM were followed: but the long stay at SCIO of some officers of the PORTE, that of the troops of ASIA, of the Turkish and BARBARY squadrons, and a thousand other occasions of expense at the charge of the inhabitants, have from time to time furnished a pretext for increasing this tax, and for carrying it to four piastrres.

The island is, besides, subject as well as those of the ARCHIPELAGO, to the duty which the captain-pacha annually levies on them. SCIO formerly paid twenty-four purses: at this day it pays forty-eight\*.

All the stuffs manufactured in the island are, before they are sent out of it, subject to a mark or seal affixed by the mutselim, under penalty of confiscation and fine: they pay the value of six aspres† per pique‡, when they are wrought in gold or in silver: plain silk stuffs pay only two aspres: calicoes, dimities, and other cotton cloths, pay much less.

\* A purse contains 500 piastrres: at the present day, it may be valued, at nearly 1000 livres, (*circa*. 41 l. sterling.)

† The aspre is the third of a parat. The parat is worth nearly five centimes.

‡ The pique is a measure of from twenty-five to twenty-six inches.

The karatch, or capitation, to which non-Muſſulmans are ſubject throughout the whole empire, was, after the conqueſt of the iſland, compounded for the villages, and fixed in proportion to their population and the extent of their territory. This tax has not varied ſince that time, although the population of ſome villages has increaſed, and, in ſome others, has conſiderably diminiſhed. Thoſe which furniſh maſtic, pay the karatch with that commodity.

In the town, all males, from the age of puberty, and through abuſe from ten to twelve years old, are inſcribed on a register, and divided into three claſſes. Thoſe of the firſt pay eleven piſtres; thoſe of the ſecond five and a half; and thoſe of the third two piſtres and three-fourths. Women are exempt from this tax, and cannot be proſecuted for their huſband or their children when abſent. It may eaſily be conceived that the avidity of the collectors of the karatch would make them confound, pretty often, all thoſe ſubject to contribution, and induce them to increaſe, as much as they could, the firſt and ſecond claſſes, if the primates had not the right of cauſing the complaints of the oppreſſed to be heard, and of requiring imperiouſly that juſtice ſhould be adminiſtered.

Independently of theſe legitimate duties, which the governor is authorized to levy in his quality of muhaſſil or farmer, he levies, as muſſelim, arbitrary and illegal taxes, the produce of which, conſidered ſeparately, is by no means burdensome to the inhabitants, but the total eſtimate of which forms a tolerably large ſum. Theſe taxes, which are the perquiſites of his place, fall on moſt eatables, and particularly on butcher's meat, the price of which is always exorbitant at Scio, under the pretext that the contractors are obliged to ſend to the coaſt of ASIA for the ſheep which are there ſold. No one doubts that this excluſive privilege of ſupplying the ſhambles with ſheep is  
dearly

dearly purchased of the mutselim, and that the naïb and janazary-aga cause themselves to be paid for their silence in this respect.

Private individuals, who obtain from the mutselim places, commissions, exclusive permissions, and small farms, also pay him every year a retribution more or less great, according to their importance, and according to the competition which never fails to take place.

The *soubachi*, chief of the patrol, to whom the police of the town and of the country is intrusted (with the exception of the villages where mastic is gathered) finds a thousand opportunities of harassing and squeezing the unfortunate persons who are off their guard for a moment. Established in order to be the scourge of prostitutes, he registers their name, taxes them, and becomes their protector. All the taverns also pay him a tax, of which he gives an account to the mutselim. Quarrels, broils, law-suits, faults of the most trifling nature, are so many opportunities which the rapacity of the *soubachi* suffers not to escape: innocent and guilty, are all crowded into the prisons of his master, and are not released till after they have justified themselves, or have procured their liberation by dint of money.

Throughout the Ottoman Empire pecuniary fines are an inexhaustible mine in the hands of an able governor, not over-burdened with delicacy; but here he fears, with reason, the complaints of the chief persons of the district, and the resentment of the sultana protectress of the island. More than once, mutselims have been known to be recalled and punished on the complaint of the primates. These examples, far from frequent no doubt, are nevertheless sufficient for them all to be cautious, and not to exceed too much the limits of their duties.

Almost all the lands of the Ottoman Empire, as I have elsewhere said, are burdened with an annual rent to the agas or lords: those of Scio, through a special favour of SOLIMAN I. have preserved almost all the privileges which they enjoyed under the domination of the Genoese. The inhabitants of the villages which furnish mastic acknowledge for chief no other than the aga who farms that production: exempt from contributing their labour gratuitously on public occasions, they are obliged only to convey the mastic to the town, and furnish horses and beasts of burden to this aga, when he travels about the villages in order to collect it.

We had an opportunity of seeing the aga in his tour: preceded by military music, followed by several tchocadars, and surrounded by a great number of villagers eager to attend him, we should much rather have taken him for a military commander than a simple farmer of taxes, had we not been previously informed. As persons travelling in the service of the Republic, he received us with much attention, made us a present of a few pounds of the finest mastic that he had, and gave us letters for the head men of the villages whither we were going. We obtained every where, by means of these letters, convenient lodgings, the food that we asked for, and the horses that we wanted.

One of the noblest privileges of the Sciots, that which serves as a dam against the torrent of the judicial injustice of the Turks, is to have notaries of their religion, whose acts, in the Greek dialect, are respected by the Ottomans, and received at their tribunal as authentic documents. The Roman catholics have one who assumes the title of apostolical notary. The Greeks, infinitely more numerous, have several.

Next to this privilege, the greatest of all, is that of nominating among them five primates, whose functions consist in defending with firmness the

validity of these acts, in examining and judging all the litigious affairs of the island, as to civil matters, which concern them. Criminal matters are not within the competency of these primates: however, as the redress of public grievances belongs to them, they receive the declarations of the plaintiffs, accuse the delinquent to the government, and prosecute his trial at the Turkish tribunal.

The assessment and collection of the taxes are committed to their care: they pour their amount into the coffer of the muhaffil, without any other deduction than the fees of the collectors. They are appointed for a year only, by the majority of votes, in a general assembly convoked for that purpose. Three of these primates are taken from among the Greeks, and two from among the Roman catholics.

At the same time are appointed the *protomastofi*, a sort of consul-judges, whose functions consist in taking cognizance of all litigious affairs relative to purchases and sales, manufactures, and, in general, every thing that relates to the commerce of the island, both interior and exterior. They prevent illegal acts and smuggling; they deal roughly with those who, in order to save the duty, have not caused the governor's seal to be put to the stuffs and linens which they wish to send abroad. In all cases their sentence is to be carried into execution without appeal: but in the latter, the muhaffil requires from the delinquent, besides the confiscation of the piece not marked, a sum of money proportioned to the value of the goods on which he wished to evade the duty.

This municipal jurisdiction, very much respected by the Turks, is composed of three Greeks and one Roman catholic: it is annual, more frequently biennial, and is never intrusted to any but merchants, who join to a knowledge of commerce an unequivocal reputation for probity.

The

The inhabitants of Scio have likewise the privilege of electing every year two intendants of health, whose number they increase in case of the plague. Their power extends in this respect over all who inhabit or land on the island, with the exception of the Turks and Franks. They are allowed to prohibit a pestiferous village from all communication with the town, at the same time furnishing it, nevertheless, with all the assistance which humanity claims in similar cases. But, woe be to the cultivator, who, through the allurements of gain, or any other motive, should pass the limits which the interest of all has traced! He would be apprehended, and subjected to a cruel *bastinado*.

These intendants allow not a suspected boat to enter the harbour; they oblige her to remain in the road, inform themselves frequently of the health of the crew; and if there be any sailor attacked by the plague, they cause him to be conveyed to the lazaretto. One of them precedes him, armed with a stick, always ready to strike whoever should not get out of the way at the word *alarga*, pronounced with a strong voice.

The lazaretto, which we visited at a time when there was no uneasiness felt respecting the plague, is contained in a vast enclosure, towards the sea, to the north of the town. The entrance to it is by a road shaded by an arbour, and paved with stones variously coloured. It consists of several piles of building separated from each other, intended, some for the sick, and others for the convalescents.

When the plague is in the town, the intendants alternately go their round; they station guards at the infested houses, in order to prevent all communication: they place about the sick, in a condition to pay the expense, people capable of taking care of them; and if the pestiferous person be poor, and destitute of assistance, they cause him to be taken to the

## TRAVELS IN THE

the effects belonging to him, susceptible of being furnished.

Notwithstanding the precautions which the Greeks and even the native take to secure themselves from this disorder, the great access of foreign strangers which cannot be opposed, the frequent arrival of ships of war, and perhaps too the negligence which occurs in examining the boats that are daily bringing eatables from ASIA, with which the island cannot dispense, are so many causes that tend sometimes to introduce the plague among them. That of 1788, which in a little time carried off fourteen thousand persons, will long be quoted as one of the most calamitous epochs in the history of this country.

These intendants have also the inspection of the hospital of lepers, situated in a narrow valley, at some distance to the north north-west of the town. Each patient has a very small lodging and a very little garden which he is at liberty to cultivate. I saw with regret that, in the LEVANT, all lepers were considered as incurable, and that, in consequence, there was not administered to any the assistance capable, perhaps, of effecting a cure. I invite European physicians who may be able to make some stay at SCIO, to occupy themselves with this interesting object. They will find in the intendants, in the primates, and in the notables of the town, every accommodation that they can want for the observations which they may wish to make, and the experiments which they may be inclined to try.

Muslim toleration, which leaves the Sciots the liberty of having a police, tribunals, and particular judges, is still more indulgent in regard to their religion. The Greeks, infinitely more numerous, more rich, and more powerful than the Latins, possess about seven hundred churches in the island, a calculation which will, no doubt, appear exaggerated, but the exactness of

of which was warranted to me by the best-informed persons of Scio. Persecuted by their adversaries, the weak Latins have no more than four at the present day, a single one in the town, and three in the country. The number of priests, as may well be imagined, is proportionate to this astonishing number of churches. It is extremely curious to see them display, in the midst of the fanatic Mussulmans, all the pomp of the Greek and Roman religious ceremonies. Their processions and interments attract an innumerable train; the priests in their surplices, the papas in their stoles, traverse the streets of the town, preceded by a long cross, followed by a great number of faithful with a wax-taper in their hand. The stern Mussulman sees them pass without murmuring, provided they pay homage to the mosques, provided they interrupt their singing at the sight of that venerable place, that they detach the cross from its staff, and hold it humbly lowered.

The privilege of having bells to their churches is granted only to the inhabitants of the mastic villages: they serve for calling them to prayers, to mass, to work, to the gathering of the mastic, to the parochial assemblies; they are likewise intended for giving the alarm in case of attack or fire.

Independently of the Latin churches of which I have spoken, there are three convents of friars under the protection of FRANCE. The capuchins consider themselves as proprietors of the consular house, which makes a part of their convent. The monks had decamped a long time before our arrival at Scio, and the chapel was abandoned since the consul no longer paid for the service that was performed there before.

The history of Scio is lost in the obscurity of time, and is confounded with the errors of fable. At first under the rod of kings, next under republican agitation, then under the odious tyranny of factions, alternately  
independent

independent and subjected, never perhaps free and happy, the inhabitants of Scio have passed successively under the domination of the Persians, under that of the Greeks, and under that of the Romans. The Venetians attempted to establish themselves there when the Europeans in a delirium were crowding towards the oriental regions, in order to drive the *infidel* Mussulmans from the *Holy Land*. The Greek emperors soon after sold the island to some Genoese nobles, and that republic had rendered it the emporium of an extensive commerce, when, in 1566, SOLIMAN I. made himself master of it.

Favoured by the catholics of the country, the Venetians took possession of Scio, in 1693, towards the end of the reign of ACHMET II: they conducted themselves there in a very indecorous and very impolitic manner, by persecuting the Greeks enemies of the Latins. The year after MEZOMORTO, a Turkish admiral, had only to present himself to beat them and expel them from the island. Since that epoch, Scio has not ceased to be subject to the empire of the crescent.

The most ancient and the most valuable monument on which this island prides itself, is that it is called the *School of HOMER*. Four miles to the north of the town, at the foot of Mount *Epos*, is found near the sea-shore, a calcareous rock, whose summit is cut into the shape of a platform; it is about twenty feet in diameter: a seat crowns its circumference: in the centre is a square block, which rises from the rock to a foot and a half in height, and which bears on each of its sides the figure of a mutilated sphynx, scarcely cognizable. Such is this monument which the inhabitants consider as the place where HOMER instructed and delighted his countrymen; for they are persuaded that Scio gave birth to that great man.

This opinion, warmly supported by some, strongly contested by others, still leaves the mind in suspense. The most intelligent inhabitants of SCIO instance among others an arch of gray marble, which was still shewn not long since, at *ERYTHES*, as an ancient monument belonging to the house in which HOMER was born. They also quote the excellent wine produced by the rising grounds of *ERYTHES*, bordering on the Arvisian fields; a wine known at SCIO from times the most remote, under the name of *HOMER's nectar*. By their account, it is this nectar that was given him when he was weaned; it is the delicious wine of these rising grounds, that was spilt on the altars which were erected to him when his verses had rendered him immortal.

Two leagues beyond the *School of HOMER*, lies Port DAUPHIN, on which was situated the ancient *DELPHINIUM*. Ships of war anchor in this harbour in winter; whereas they find it more convenient and equally safe, in summer, to come to in the environs of the town of SCIO.

When you have passed the SPALMODORI Islands, and doubled the cape, you arrive at *CARDAMYLA*, where, according to *TOURNEFORT*, are to be seen the ruins of a temple which he believes to have been consecrated to NEPTUNE. We did not land at *CARDAMYLA*, but we passed very close to it on the day of our departure from MITYLENE. The coast in the environs is very elevated and steep: the rock, naked in several places, appeared to us every where calcareous.

To the west of the island, is perceived at a little distance from *PIRGHI*, in a small plain that terminates at the sea, ruins which must be considered as those of the ancient *PHANUM*. This place, at the present day called *PHANA*, presents heaps of rubbish, piles of stones, for the most part square, smooth, and cut with a chisel; but neither inscription, pillar, nor bas-reliefs are  
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there to be discovered: the anchorage exposed to the north-west would be dangerous in winter for large ships. The Arvisian fields and rising grounds, so celebrated formerly for the goodness of their wines, are more to the north, and make part of the territory of Volisso.

In the first excursions which we made in the island, the inhabitants did not fail to direct our steps towards *SCIAVIA*, situated upwards of two leagues to the south of *Scio*. A running stream, fresh and copious, issues at the foot of some calcareous rocks, and waters gardens which lie below. This place, truly beautiful, truly picturesque, is held in veneration in the country: an infinite number of virtues are attributed to these waters, and it is believed that it was at this fountain that the beautiful *HELEN* came to bathe when she inhabited the island.

With respect to ancient sculpture, no remarkable monument of this kind is to be met with at *Scio*, except two headless busts, let into the outer wall of a country-house built by the Genoese, at a little distance from the town. Citizen *DIGEON*, vice-consul of the Republic, considered them as two busts of *ISIS*, in which, according to him, the Egyptian chisel of the reign of the *PTOLEMIES* was distinguishable; but the corset with which they are clothed, as well as an ornament probably of metal, which they wore on the bosom, to judge of it from the hollows that are in it, incline us to think that these busts are more modern, and, in all probability, the work of the Genoese.

Some pieces of pillars, some remains of capitals are still to be seen in most of the villages which we traversed, but no trace of ancient edifices, no vestige of a temple is to be perceived; time and the hand of man have destroyed every thing.

Mastic must be considered as one of the most important productions of the island, and the most valuable, since to this it is that the inhabitants of Scio owe a part of their privileges, and the cultivators their independence, their comfort, and, perhaps, their happiness. The lentisk which produces it, differs not from that which grows in the south of Europe and in all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. At Scio, are remarked only a few slight varieties with larger leaves, which culture has produced, and which are perpetuated by layers and grafting.

In order to obtain the mastic, numerous incisions are made in the trunk and principal branches of the lentisk, from the 15th to the 20th of July, according to the Greek calendar. There exudes little by little from all those incisions, a liquid juice which insensibly grows thicker, remains attached to the tree in drops more or less large; or falls and thickens on the ground, when it is very abundant. The former is the most in request: it is detached with a sharp iron instrument, half an inch in breadth at its extremity. Frequently cloths are placed under the tree, in order that the mastic which trickles from it, may not be impregnated with earth and filth.

According to the regulations made on this subject, the first gathering cannot take place before the 27th of August. It lasts eight successive days, after which fresh incisions are made in the trees till the 25th of September, then the second gathering is made, which likewise lasts eight days. After this time the trees are cut no more; but the mastic which continues to run, is gathered till the 19th of November, on the Monday and Tuesday of every week. It is afterwards forbidden to gather this production.

The culture of the lentisk is simple and easy: it consists much more in cleansing the soil than in turning it up. The cultivators dispense with cutting this tree, and they take good care not to form it a handsome stem.

It has been discovered that the lentisks which trail, yield much more mastic than those whose stem is straight and shooting.

Less like trees than shrubs, their trunk scarcely acquires seven or eight inches in diameter, and their height is seldom above twelve or fifteen feet.

Citizen DIGEON communicated to us an experiment which deserves to be known. As it is forbidden to cultivate the lentisk out of the limits traced by the government, a Turk thought to evade the law, and nevertheless obtain mastic by grafting the lentisk on young turpentine-trees. These grafts succeeded perfectly well; but this man was very much astonished, a few years after, to see flow from the incisions that he had made, a substance which combined with the odour and the qualities of mastic, the liquidness of turpentine.

Mastic is gathered in twenty-one villages situated to the south of the town. There are, besides, three villages to the west, whose plantations far from productive have been abandoned. The latter have not, on that account, less preserved their ancient denomination and the privileges which the others enjoy: they pay their impost in lime since they no longer furnish mastic.

This production amounts, one year with another, to fifty thousand okes and even more. Twenty-one thousand belong to the aga who farms this commodity, and are delivered by the cultivators in payment of their personal impost. They are paid for the surplus at the rate of 50 parats the oke (nearly 16 sous the pound) and they are prohibited, under very severe penalties, from selling or disposing of it to any other than the aga who farms it.

The best and finest quality is sent to CONSTANTINOPLE for the palace of the Grand Signior. The second quality is intended for CAIRO, and passes into the harems of the Mamalúks. The merchants generally obtain a mixture of the second and third quality.

The women of SCIO, as well as the female Mussulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jewesses of the whole empire, are in the habit of having mastic incessantly in their mouth. This resinous and odoriferous substance does not easily dissolve; it becomes soft and very white by means of heat and saliva; it cleans the teeth, gives the breath an agreeable odour, strengthens the stomach, and carries to the lungs balsamic emanations extremely salutary, and which may to a certain degree prevent the pulmonary consumption, to which the inhabitants of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO are very subject.

SCIO turpentine is daily becoming more scarce. Barely two hundred oke are collected at this day, whereas double that quantity was obtained formerly. Notches are made in the tree in lieu of incisions, and underneath them is placed a small earthen vessel fit for receiving the liquor that flows from them. The turpentine-tree acquires a size rather considerable: some are seen near the Armenian burying-ground of CONSTANTINOPLE, on the road leading to BYUK-DE'RE, which are not inferior to our largest walnut-trees.

The women of SCIO are very fond of its fruit: the resinous and very aromatic taste of its pulp pleases them as much as that of the kernel; and as it is scarcely of the size of a pea, they eat at the same time the stone, the pulp of a bluish green which covers it, and the kernel which it contains. It is called in the country *tzicoudia*, a word whose signification is not to be found in any language of the LEVANT.

Although cotton is in great plenty at Scio, yet it does not suffice for the supply of the numerous manufactories which are there established. The inhabitants are obliged to send for a tolerably large quantity from ROMANIA and the coast of ASIA. They manufacture plain cloths, dimities, swanskins plain and shaggy, and a few coarse calicoes striped blue. The country-women spin cotton with a wheel; they also employ themselves in making stockings and caps which they bring to sell at the town.

The collection of silk, in ordinary years, is estimated at ten or twelve thousand okes: it sometimes amounts to fifteen thousand, a quantity which is never sufficient for supplying the manufactories of the town. About twenty thousand okes are annually procured from BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, and SYRIA. The mulberry-tree which is cultivated at Scio, and with which the silk-worm is reared is that which we know under the name of *mûrier noir* or *mûrier d'Espagne* \*. A few private persons draw from the fruit, a brandy not very spirituous, but agreeable. The price of the leaf of the mulberry-tree arrived at its size, is from two to three piastres.

The island produces wheat, barley, wine, oil, and a few legumes; but the quantity of these commodities is so disproportioned to that required by the number of the inhabitants that they are obliged to draw them from all quarters. The wheat is scarcely sufficient to subsist them for three months. The wine furnishes for the consumption of seven or eight: it is, in general, sweet and spirituous. That which rich individuals make with care, is as good as MALAGA, FRONTIGNAC, and CYPRUS wines, when they have acquired a little age.

\* *Morus nigra*. LINN.—*Aug.* The common mulberry-tree.

The oil suffices for the wants of the inhabitants, in good crops; they procure that article from **MITYLENE** when these are bad or indifferent: here, as well as throughout the **LEVANT**, they salt a very great quantity of olives, according to the process which I have mentioned elsewhere.

Oranges, common lemons, wild lemons, and bergamot-citrons which are brought during the winter and in the spring to **CONSTANTINOPLE**, **ADRIANOPLE**, and **SMYRNA**, are a very important article of trade which is estimated, one year with another, at 2,000,000 of our livres (*circa* 83,333l. sterling.) A very agreeable sirup, in great request, is also made with the expressed juice of lemons and cedrats: it is set to thicken over the fire, after receiving the addition of a little sugar or honey. It is sent to **CONSTANTINOPLE**, to **CAIRO**, and into the **BLACK SEA**. The rinds of these fruits are preserved in sugar or honey, and are distributed all over the **LEVANT**.

The galls while yet green of a species of willow, *salvia pomifera*, are in like manner preserved in sugar or honey. This sweetmeat is very agreeable, much esteemed, and highly stomachic. The **Sciots** employ not only the galls of the country, but those which they receive from the neighbouring islands.

The rose-tree is also an important article of culture, either from the great quantity of conserve of roses which is there made, or from the essential oil which is extracted from it.

Dried figs are esteemed, and are almost all sent to **SMYRNA** and to **CONSTANTINOPLE**; of these the merchants of **SMYRNA** dispatch to **EUROPE**, as well from **Scio** as from the coast of **ASIA**, to the amount of 100,000 livres (*circa* 4,166l. sterling).

In most of the gardens is seen the sebsten, whose oval fruit, a little smaller than a common olive, contains an excellent glue, employed throughout the LEVANT for bird-catching.

A plum-tree called *verdaffier* is here cultivated: its fruit is large, oblong, of a pale green, and of a very agreeable taste. It ripens in July, and lasts scarcely three weeks. The inhabitants make it an article of trade: they peel the plum, dry it in the sun, pack it up in boxes, and send it to SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, where it is sold as high as two piaſtres the oke.

The wax is not sufficient for the great consumption which is made of that article in the churches of the country: the inhabitants import it from GREECE and NATOLIA: they also import honey for sirups, preserves, and sweetmeats which they prepare; that of GREECE is the most esteemed.

It is reckoned that there are about five hundred looms employed in the manufacture of silk stuffs: the inhabitants of SCIO have succeeded in imitating, in some measure, our LYONS silks: but they have copied with more success the INDIA silks and cottons, which they also draw from ALEPPO and DAMASCUS. Those of SCIO are at this day superior to those of these two cities, the oldest manufacturing ones of the Ottoman Empire. They also make a considerable quantity of *gaitans* or silk loops preferable to those of CONSTANTINOPLE and BURSA. They serve for the edging and buttonholes of the Turkish dresses: they also plait some in gold and in silver for those of the women. There are much fewer looms for the cottons than for the silks.

The trade of the various cloths manufactured at SCIO is estimated at upwards of 6,000,000 of our livres (250,000l. sterling).

We shall not here enter into an enumeration of the articles of natural history which this island furnishes in abundance: it will be sufficient for us for the moment to present three shells unknown to naturalists.

1. The *denticulated bulimus* (*PLATE XVII. fig. 9. a. b.*) It resembles, in point of form, colour, and bulk, the *nonpareil bulimus*. The last volute is a little angular and a little more striated than the other thirteen. The mouth would be almost round if it had not a little posterior sinus: its inner rim is entirely denticulated. Two stronger teeth, which extend inwardly, are to be perceived; that which answers to the termination of the columella is more marked than the other. We found it at the foot of a wall, in a garden planted with orange-trees \*.

2. The *whelk-like melania* (*fig. 8.*) It lives in the fresh waters of SCIO, of almost all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, of CRETE, and of SYRIA. Its form is conical, and its colour dark; it is smooth, composed of eight volutes, the last of which, seen behind, is a little longer than the others taken together. The mouth is oblong-oval; the lip is thin and without sinuosities. The callosity of the columella is white. The extremity of the shell is a little emarginated †.

3. In the fresh waters is also found the *oriental planorbis*, (*PLATE XVII. fig. 11. a. and fig. 11. b.*) whose colour is similar to that of the great planorbis of EUROPE; but it differs from it by its face which answers to the mouth,

\* *BULIMUS denticulatus sinister, parvulus, elongatus, subtiliter striatus, rufescens: apertura cum angusto sinu suborbiculata, undique multi-dentata.*

† *MELANIA buccinoïdea breviter fusiformis; lævigata, fuliginosa: callo columellari albo; basi truncato, emarginato.*

being deeper and the outline of the mouth not being interrupted by the convexity of the second volute. In this shell there can seldom be reckoned more than three rounded volutes, scarcely striated\*.

\* *PLANORBIS orientalis parvulus, subtrigynatus, gyris depressifusculis: margine convexo; foveaicali depressiore; apertura subovali.*

CHAPTER VII.

*Departure from Scio.—Stay at Tcheshmé, at Tino, at Andros, at Myconi, at Delos, at Naxia, at Paros, and at Antiparos.*

AFTER having in vain waited three months at SCIO, for letters from PARIS; after having transmitted to Citizen DESCORHES some reflections on the interesting countries which we had just visited, we resolved to repair to CRETE, and to examine the islands and the important places that should lie in our route: we sailed, in consequence, on the 21st of Floréal (10th of May) on board of a Greek boat which we had just hired, and, in four hours, we arrived at TCHESME', a small town of ASIA, situated almost opposite to SCIO, at the head of a spacious road to which art has had no occasion to add in order to make it a good harbour. A citadel somewhat extensive, constructed by the Genoese, runs sloping to the sea-shore, and seems intended to secure from all insult both the town and the harbour.

TCHESME' is built on the ruins of *Cyssus*. Its road, formerly famous from the victory which the fleet of the Romans there gained over that of ANTIOCHUS, is not less so, in our days, from the burning and the total destruction of the Turkish Squadron, which happened in 1770. But the Romans took advantage of their victory; while the Russians, masters of the sea, and seconded by a good wind, durst not, after this event, force their way up the HELLESPONT, and run under the walls of the Seraglio to dictate to MUSTAPHA the conditions of peace which they might have imposed on him.

Geographers place at the head of a bay, two or three leagues to the north of TCHESME', the ancient ERYTHRÆ, celebrated for the oracles of the Sibyl; I chose to proceed thither on foot, while my colleague was purchasing at TCHESME', the provisions that we wanted. I left on the right the town and some chalky, calcareous hillocks; I traversed an uneven ground, fields in culture, hillocks uncultivated, and, after an hour's journey, I found myself in a plain that terminated at the bay of which I have just spoken. I saw, at a little distance from the sea, a spring rather copious, the water of which was harsh and burning: the environs presented marine salt. A poor building stood by the side of the spring: I was told that there are basins where a person may bathe; I wished to enter them: perceiving some Turks, I retired, and was proceeding towards the sea, when, a moment after, I saw two of them, with the yatagan in their hand, advancing towards me, threatening me and calling me *dog* and *infidel*. I had with me only a Greek servant, little capable of seconding me, though strong as HERCULES; but I had a sword-cane: this was better. I immediately unsheathed my weapon, and, in a firm and imposing voice, desired them to be told, that if they did not instantly retire, I would cause five hundred blows to be given them with a stick, in my presence, by the aga of TCHESME'. This threat and, above all, my sword, made these Turks change their tone. "He is a mad-man, he is a Frenchman," said they to each other; "let us leave him alone."

I did not think it prudent to go and see the ruins of ERYTHRÆ. I gathered several interesting plants, and returned to the harbour.

The territory of TCHESME' furnishes grain and fruit in abundance: a little oil and a great many raisins are there gathered. It is from this harbour that SCIO draws a great part of its subsistence, and that it frequently keeps up an intercourse with SMYRNA.

The next day, the 22d. (11th of May,) we set sail for NAXIA with a light breeze from the north. We followed the coast of ASIA, leaving on the right two small desert islands; and on the left, Cape BLANCO; we saw, to the south of SCIO, the islet called *VENETICO*. We perceived distinctly ahead of us, ANDROS, TINO, MYCONI, NICARIA, and SAMOS: our boat was steering towards MYCONI, where we were in hopes to arrive before dark; but, about four o'clock in the afternoon, there appeared, to the north-west, some clouds which grew bigger and advanced towards us. Our mariners, uneasy, were afraid of a sudden and hard squall; it happened: the north-west wind was violent, but of short duration. Our boat was good, and lightly laden. They put us down below, laid over the hatches, and, after having lowered all the sails, with the exception of the fore-sail only, they bore up and put before the wind. I suffered by the storm so much the more severely, as I was deprived of air. My colleague was not at all sick; he had seen, during his voyage to the austral shores, seas more rough, hurricanes more terrible. We remained upwards of an hour in our nook, after which we were allowed to take the air and to participate in the joy of the crew. The wind had lulled and appeared to be getting round to the northward; the clouds were dispersing. The sailors asked for wine; we gave them some, at the same time requesting them to drink with moderation: their ebriety was to be feared with the return of bad weather. However, it was very fine the rest of the day; the wind died away more and more, the night was still, part of the crew slept: we rested very well, and the next day on our rising, finding ourselves very close to TINO, we were exceedingly glad to go on shore in order to repose for a moment.

We landed, to the east, in a small roadstead sheltered by calcareous rocks, on which we remarked, among other plants, the thornless caper-bush, whose leaf is thicker and more succulent than that of the common one. We then ascended a hill in order to herborize and see the interior of the island; after which

which we set sail, and stood on and anchored to the southward, in the roadstead, on whose shore is built the little town of *SAN NICOLÒ*, which occupies the place of the ancient capital. The citadel is up the country, four miles from that spot, on a very lofty hill.

History informs us that the Tinians had furnished troops to the Greeks at the battle of *PLATÆA*; that afterwards they had submitted to the Persians, as well as all the inhabitants of the *CYCLADES*. *TINO* was united to the Empire of the EAST when the Venetians, in 1207, made themselves masters of it, and fortified it in such a manner that, for a long time, it resisted alone all the efforts of the Ottoman forces.

In 1537, *BARBAROSSA*, after having taken *SKYRO*, *PATMOS*, *NIO*, *STAMPALIA*, *PAROS*, and some other islands of the *ARCHIPELAGO*, came and attacked it with a considerable fleet and some land-forces. He had already made himself master of part of the island; already had several villages capitulated; but some timely succours sent from *CANDIA* obliged the Turks to retire.

In 1570, *SELIM II.* meditating the conquest of *CYPRUS*, sent considerable forces against this island, then possessed by the Venetians: the Turkish admiral who commanded them, made, in passing, a descent on *TINO*, ravaged the country, burnt some villages, and laid siege to the fortrefs. The proveditor *PARUTA* defended himself with so much courage, that the Turks did not think fit to lose their time in the conquest of an island of little importance, which could not fail to fall sooner or later into their power.

Two years after, the Turks presented themselves with sixty ships; but they again found the courage of the inhabitants, and the prudence of the governor, obstacles which they were unable to surmount. They retired after  
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having ravaged the island anew, and carried off some flocks, some women, and some children.

In 1684, under MAHOMET IV. MOROSINI beat and handled very roughly the Turkish fleet which had come to attack the island for the fourth time. But in 1714, under the reign of ACHMET III. the island surrendered to DIANUM-COGGIA, captain-pacha, who had only eleven gallies and eight ships. The proveditor BERNARDO BALBI is reproached with having made but a feeble resistance, and with having capitulated when he ought to have fought and to have waited for the succour which the Republic was on the point of sending to him.

Next to SCIO, TINO is the most industrious country of the ARCHIPELAGO, because it is the most free and the most favoured by the government. No Turk here incommodes the inhabitants by his presence, or constrains them by his authority. The island has magistrates, whom the people appoint every year; and these places, more honourable than lucrative, sought after by all, are granted to those only who have distinguished themselves by their probity and their attachment to their country.

Here are reckoned forty towns or villages, which, according to the registers of the government, contain a population of fifteen thousand eight hundred souls; namely: ten thousand Greeks, and five thousand eight hundred Latins.

The island is divided into two thousand two hundred hearths, and all the lands into four hundred and seventy-four thousand and sixty-four aspres. The aspre is equivalent to a ground-rent value of five piaftres, so that a field valued at a hundred piaftres, is marked twenty aspres in the registers. Each aspre

aspre pays at the rate of two parats tax, which is levied for the account of some Turkish agas who reside at CONSTANTINOPLE.

To complete the total amount of the sums successively required by the PORTE for the captain-pacha and his suite, and in order to provide for unforeseen disbursements, for the expenses of administration and others, the inhabitants pay some additional parats in proportion to the aspres which they possess.

Every ground-rent property is valued and inscribed in two registers; one of which is in the hands of the Latin comptroller, and the other in the hands of the Greek comptroller.

In order that the Turkish agas may not send a tchocadar to exact and gather their duties, the inhabitants compound with them, and remit them their money with the greatest punctuality; by this means they avoid the expenses which that agent would occasion, and the extortion which he would not fail to exercise in his double quality of Mussulman and a person intrusted with power.

The total impost, with the expenses, amounts annually to 36,234 piaftres; a considerable sum, in proportion to the small extent of the island, but very moderate if we consider its population and the industry of its inhabitants.

TINO, in a good harvest, produces sufficient barley for the wants of the year.

Wheat scarcely affords a supply for three or four months.

As to legumes, the inhabitants gather none but a few broad beans, and some chick-peas, the flour of which they mix, as at Scio, with that of wheat to make bread.

Sheep are in sufficient plenty to admit of being exported annually to the value of from 5 to 6000 piaftres.

No oil is made at TINO: the olives which are there gathered are salted and consumed by the inhabitants.

Wine is sufficiently abundant, to furnish the supply of the European vessels which occasionally anchor in the harbours and roads of the island.

There are figs, oranges, several other fruits and various herbage for the wants of the inhabitants: these last are sometimes furnished to Scio and SMYRNA.

Honey and wax, cotton and wool, are generally consumed in the country.

Silk is the only article of exportation at all considerable. A great part of the island is planted with mulberry-trees, and almost all the women are employed in rearing silk-worms and afterwards in winding the silk off the cods. Every year are imported two or three thousand okes of raw silk, generally employed for the loops and strings which are made at Scio, at SMYRNA, at CONSTANTINOPLE, and elsewhere, for trimming the dresses of both sexes. At TINO, and in the CYCLADES, the inhabitants cultivate the white mulberry-tree, which they suffer to grow at pleasure.

The lands of the island are, in general, not very fertile, except in some plains of no great extent and in some watered vallies. The inhabitants make  
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amends for this deficiency by a persevering labour, and an activity and industry far from common in the eastern countries. Here the rich man is not more idle than the poor man; the one is a merchant, trader, or agriculturist; the other, an artisan, mariner, or labourer.

Neither do the women remain idle: they occupy themselves with the cares of the family, with the rearing of silk-worms, with rural labours, and the day never passes without their taking the needle or the spindle, or knitting silk stockings, which are in request among the Europeans on account of their solidity and the goodness of their wear.

The Europeans and the Greeks of SMYRNA, CONSTANTINOPLE, and SALONICA, prize highly the servants of TINO, especially the female domestics, because they find them, in general, more handy, more clean, and more honest than the greater part of those of the other islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. Their number is so considerable, that every ten, twelve, or fifteen days at latest, there sails, for SMYRNA, a boat loaded with young women who go to supply the place of those who, after four or five years' service, return with the intention of marrying, by means of the savings which they have made.

There likewise sails every month a boat for CONSTANTINOPLE, and another every year for SALONICA.

The inhabitants of PYRGOS, ISTERIA, and CARDIANI work and fashion the marble which they have in their territory, for SMYRNA, SALONICA, and CONSTANTINOPLE. Every man gains at this business, from twenty to forty parats a day.

ANDROS is separated from TINO only by a channel of a mile in width, into which vessels of burden are afraid to enter, on account of the rocks and shoals which are there situated. This island is about ninety miles in circumference, while TINO is scarcely sixty. Although it is lofty and mountainous like this last, it has in proportion more lands fit for cultivation; its plains are somewhat more extensive, equally fertile, and as well watered. Here are to be seen fifty villages, and, nevertheless, its population does not exceed twelve thousand souls.

ANDROS is the appanage of a sultana: a Turkish waiwode there administers the police and watches over the tranquillity of the island. It pays about 30,000 piastres, as well for the duties of the sultana, as for those of the captain-pacha.

Silk is the principal produce of its territory: the quantity which is annually exported is estimated at six thousand okes. A tolerably large quantity of oranges and lemons are also exported for SALONICA, ATHENS, and the MOREA. The wheat, barley, wine, and oil are generally sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The island also produces legumes, herbage, various fruits, honey, wax, and cotton.

On the morning of the 25th of Floréal (14th of May), we sailed from the road of SAN NICOLÒ, and ran and anchored in that of MYCONI, distant nearly twelve miles. The ground which we examined to the north and to the south of the town, appeared to us entirely of granite. The island is far from fertile, very uneven, almost all mountainous, though much less elevated than NAXOS, ANDROS, and TINO. The town, situated on the sea-shore, is tolerably large, and contains about four thousand inhabitants: this is the whole population of MYCONI. The inhabitants are either mariners or cultivators. They gather barley and wine in a

quantity sufficiently large to export some every year. The other commodities are consumed in the island. It pays 7,500 piaſtres by way of impoſt.

The ſame evening, we wiſhed to get under ſail, in order to proceed to **DELOS**. Our mariners would have preferred ſleeping at **MYCONI**, where they had friends, and where they found good wine, to going to paſs the night on the ſea-ſhore, or among ruins which inſpired them with no intereſt. They told us with perſeverance, that **DELOS** and the other deſert iſlands which lie near it, were the refuge of pirates, and that there was much to be feared if we reſolved to ſpend the night there. “ Thoſe people,” ſaid they to us, “ do not content themſelves with ſtripping navigators; they kill “ them and throw them into the ſea, in order to ſmother their crime and “ not to be fought after.” This argument was, undoubtedly, very good; but ſince it was neceſſary to paſs the next day between theſe iſlands, there was no more danger in going to ſleep there that very night. “ Drink,” ſaid we to theſe poltroons; “ another glaſs will give you courage, and let us de- “ part.” They aſked for half an hour in order to go and look out on the heights of the ſouth point of **MYCONI**, and, about five o’clock in the evening, we made ſail for Little **DELOS**, where we arrived before ſun-ſet.

We anchored in a ſmall harbour to the weſt of the iſland: we had ahead of us two iſlets, the Great and the Little **REMATIARI**, and farther on, at the diſtance of half a league, Great **DELOS** or the Iſland of **RHENEAE**. We regaled our mariners with our **TENEDOS** wine and our **TCHESME**’ provisions, in order to make them amends for the pleaſures which they would have enjoyed at **MYCONI**: we recommended to them to keep a good look-out, and we went to take a walk before it grew dark.

The diſorder and confuſion exhibited by the ruins of a celebrated city, the veſtiges of temples, the remains of palaces, the rubbiſh of houſes, ſtrike  
and

and astonish the traveller: his imagination seduces him for some time: he still sees standing the monuments of which there remain no more than the traces under his steps; he takes a pleasure in decorating and embellishing them. Their mass is doubled; their ornaments are multiplied. He is stopped every moment: "There is the temple of DIANA," exclaims he: "here is that of APOLLO: there it is that the priests resided." Farther on, he discovers a gymnasium; he perceives a theatre, a portico; he measures the extent of a palace; he sees mutilated statues: it is the image of a god, it is the figure of a hero, it is the portrait of a benefactor. Every where pillars, capitals; every where marbles, granites, porphyries, with bas-reliefs, and inscriptions. He cannot embrace so many objects at once; he can have but one sentiment, that of admiration.

But how melancholy are the ideas which present themselves in their turn! "What barbarous hand," says he to himself, "first carried fire and sword among objects consecrated to the veneration of mankind? What impious wretch, with a sacrilegious arm, durst demolish those temples which the gold of nations and the piety of the people erected and embellished? Who could break the statue of a beneficent god, of a hero who overthrew the enemies of his country, of a mortal who invented a useful art?"

Men of feeling! cast a glance on DELOS; behold first that island consecrated to piety, covered with temples, sumptuous edifices, adorned with delightful gardens. Figure to yourselves an immense number of people landing from all quarters, bringing the tribute which piety offered to the gods through the organ of the priests: behold them giving themselves up to joy the most pure, to pleasures the most sweet! Well!....all is destroyed! all has disappeared! At this day, there no longer exists any thing but ruins, but deserted fields, on which seem to grow, with regret, a few sorry plants, a few stunted shrubs,

An island dedicated to immortals, an island which received offerings from all civilized nations, ought to have a miraculous origin. Floating for a long time at the mercy of the winds, *DELOS*, according to fable, was fixed by the voice of *NEPTUNE*, in order to receive the mistress of *JUPITER*, who was pursued by the anger of *JUNO* in heaven and on earth. *LATONA*, under the form of a quail, brought forth *APOLLO* and *DIANA* at the foot of a palm-tree, and the venom of the serpent which threatened her, remained without effect, and could not endanger her life.

This island is not elevated like *TINO*, *NAXOS*, and *MYCONI*. Every where schistose or granitical, it exhibits no trace of a volcano, nothing that can explain, by the laws of physics, the wonders which the Greeks have transmitted to us respecting it. Mount *CYNTHUS* is, to the observer, no more than a hill of granite, of which it would be unnecessary to speak, did not every thing in this place bring back recollections, and deserve to fix the looks of the man of curiosity.

On the 26th (15th of May), before we continued our route for *NAXIA*, we wished to touch at the east part of the Island of *RHENEIA*: we passed at an early hour between the Great and the Little *REMATIARI*, and we landed at the place where the ground is still strewn with ruins and tombs\*. It is well known that the Island of *RHENEIA* became the place of interment of the inhabitants of *DELOS*, when, under the archon *EUTHYDEMUS*, it was considered as indecent that a sacred land should longer receive the dead bodies of mortals.

The Island of *RHENEIA*, or Great *DELOS*, is by no means elevated, tolerably fertile, and very fit every where for the culture of the vine and

\* A detailed description of the ruins of *Delos* is to be found in the works of *SPON*, *TOURNEFORT*, and *M. DE CHOISEUL*, &c.

the olive-tree. Though it is rather extensive, no inhabitants are to be seen: those of MYCONI go thither to sow the lands the most fertile, and feed a few flocks. In no place did we see the lentisk and the turpentine-tree, so beautiful and so common. Our mariners, on landing, hastened to cut down several of these trees for the purpose of renewing their stock of wood.

At one o'clock in the afternoon, we continued our route with a light breeze from the north, and, in four or five hours, we cast anchor in the harbour of NAXIA, situated on the west side of the island, facing PAROS. This harbour, formerly capable of containing thirty galleys, was closed by a jetty which may be distinctly perceived when the sea is smooth. It is at present several feet under water, and, nevertheless, the small craft of the country lie there in safety in all seasons. Ships of burden may anchor, in summer, off the harbour, under shelter of the rock, on which are still to be seen the remains of the temple of BACCHUS\*: but, in winter, navigators would not dare to expose themselves there; they would, with reason, be afraid of being driven on the coast with a wind rather strong from the north-west.

The town stands on an eminence by the sea-side: it was defended, under the Venetian princes, by a citadel and by walls, which the Turks have, in a great measure, destroyed. The Latins, formerly masters of the country, are all lodged within their enclosure. The Greeks occupy the part which extends to the eastward of the castle, known by the name of the *New Town*, Νέο-Κόριο.

The ancient city extended to the north, towards the fountain which bears the name of ARIADNE. There are also, below the castle, some remains of a

\* See the drawing which M. DE CHOISEUL has given of it. *Voyage Pittoresque de la Grèce*, pl. 23.

subterraneous aqueduct, that probably brought to the town the waters of a copious spring which is seen four or five miles to the east, and which at this day serves to water a part of the plain of NAXIA.

ARIADNE's fountain is no more than a simple streamlet of water, to which travellers would pay no attention, did it not remind them that this is the spot where ARIADNE abandoned herself to all the despair of a forsaken mistress: it is from this shore that she perceived the vessel which was bearing her lover far away from her; it is on the brink of this fountain, where she came every day to shed tears, and that BACCHUS, no less touched by her misfortunes than struck by her beauty, succeeded in consoling her, and in making her forget an ungrateful man.

BACCHUS had a temple at NAXOS: the gate and the foundations of it are still to be seen on a small island in the vicinity of ARIADNE's fountain\*. A bridge, built on a string of rocks, it is said, joined this island to the large one, and permitted an aqueduct to bring thither the water necessary for the priests who inhabited the enclosure of the temple.

In digging lately the foundations of a house and of a storehouse towards the sea-shore, to the northward of the castle, there was found a statue of a woman, of a tolerably handsome form. The head and the feet were wanting; the body had suffered in some places, but the neck and a part of the drapery were in pretty good preservation. We saw it in the court-yard among filth. The master of the house set on it no great value: he had been several times tempted to break it, in order to employ the pieces in the construction of his house.

\* TOURNEFORT. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. p. 219.

CHOISEUL. *Voyage Pittoresque de la Grèce*, pl. 22.

On the north side of the island is found a colossal statue of **APOLLO**, likewise imperfect, which the sculptor appears to have abandoned anciently: it is in the neighbourhood of the quarry from which the block had been taken.

**NAXOS**, like the other islands of the **ARCHIPELAGO**, has experienced all the vicissitudes of fortune. Too weak to be long independent, it was successively in alliance with the Athenians, conquered and ravaged by the Persians, tributary to the Romans, ceded to **RHODES** by **MARK ANTHONY**, afterwards subject to the emperors of the **EAST**, a long time governed by Venetian princes, and at length united to the Ottoman Empire under the reign of **SELIM II.**

The Naxiot have preserved the precious advantage of being governed by their own laws and customs: they have a municipal administration, and judges of their own election. The little importance of their island, and its remoteness from the coast of **ASIA**, have not permitted the Turks to establish themselves there. The **PORTE** contents itself with sending thither a waiwode to exercise the police, to gather the taxes, and remit them to **CONSTANTINOPLE.**

**NAXOS**, more free and more independent than **SEIO**, is, nevertheless, very far from having attained the degree of prosperity at which the latter has arrived. Trade there is not sufficiently brisk; the culture of the lands is too much neglected, and the industry of the inhabitants is almost null. Ought we attribute the cause to the contempt which the nobles, possessors of the best grounds, manifest for labour, a contempt which has unfortunately reached almost every class of citizens?

Proud of their ancient nobility, poor and haughty, alike disdaining commerce and agriculture, strangers to the military art, these noblemen, descended from the first Italian families, see pass insensibly, into plebeian hands, their ruinous mansions, their lands almost uncultivated, without thinking of repairing, by labour, the losses which an unforeseen accident, or their own misconduct, not unfrequently occasions them.

The population of the island, according to the remarks which the principal inhabitants communicated to us, exceeds ten thousand souls. The town contains nearly two thousand: the rest are scattered throughout forty-one villages. The taxes which it pays for the lands, the karatch, and the customs, amount to near forty purses, or 40,000 livres (*circa* 1,666l. sterling), exclusive of some disbursements which it is obliged to make annually, when the captain-pacha is lying at anchor with his squadron in the harbour of TRIO, or DRIO, in the Island of PAROS.

The number of catholics is daily diminishing: there are reckoned scarcely six hundred settled in the town. This does not prevent them from still having an archbishop, a coadjutor, six canons, a rector, and several curates. They have also a house of Lazarists for the education of youth, a convent of Capuchins, a convent of Cordeliers, and a convent of cloistered nuns. The number of the Greeks, on the contrary, is increasing, and their clergy are much less numerous and more rich than those of the Latins. Here all religious ceremonies are performed with the greatest pomp and the greatest freedom. The PORTE gives itself little concern about what passes in the island, provided the impost be regularly paid, and that all bend at the sight of the most insignificant of its officers.

NAXIA would be one of the most agreeable places of residence in the ARCHIPELAGO, did not the inhabitants, too idle, pull each other to pieces,  
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and did not the clergy of the two churches, too numerous for so confined a place, themselves foment hatred and encourage discord. The stranger presently perceives that the priests of the two religions govern this country with a rod of iron, and, without intending it, render the inhabitants more malicious than devout, more litigious, more quarrelsome, than just and humane.

The island is covered with high mountains, whose base is schistose or granitical. White marble and hard calcareous stone lie every where on the schistus, and give birth to a great number of springs, which water and fertilize the plains. The highest of these mountains is that of *JUPITER*, which the inhabitants call *DIA*, or *ZIA*. We went thither with the agent of the Republic: it lies three leagues to the east of the town. We saw, as we passed, the marble that bears the inscription of which *TOURNEFORT* has spoken. We penetrated into a gorge somewhat steep, and we arrived at a grotto of beautiful white marble, which many travellers have visited, to judge from their names engraved at the entrance and in the inside.

This grotto, which the inhabitants of *NAXIA* regard as a sacred spot, whither the Bacchants of the country come to celebrate their festivals and their mysteries, at this day presents nothing remarkable. In the inside, are to be seen stalactites, similar to all those of calcareous grottoes; decayed fragments in different places; some blocks of marble detached: on the outside, a place extremely solitary, little verdure, the summit of the mountain of *JUPITER* almost perpendicular, a pretty species of campanula\* on the clefts of the rocks; a little farther, a few oaks, and a great many trilobate-leaved maples†.

\* It is represented by *TOURNEFORT*. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. p. 243.

† *Acer craticum*.

The upper part of the mountain is inaccessible on that side: we made the tour of it; and, after several hours of fatigue, we reached the summit, precisely at the place where NOINTEL, French ambassador at CONSTANTINOPLE, caused his name to be engraved, together with an inscription, which time has already effaced. Nothing so beautiful as the horizon which presented itself to us: we had under our eyes a bird's-eye view of the island, and distinguished the greater part of its mountains: we were made to observe CORONO, which took its name from the nymph CORONIS, nurse to BACCHUS. Every where fertile plains, watered vallies, villages well built, chapels in good condition, formed a contrast with whitish rocks and arid hills, and composed various pictures on which our eyes could not remain fixed, so beautiful, so imposing was the prospect of the sea and its islands.

Our looks were directed, in spite of ourselves, over a great number of islands more or less lofty, more or less extensive. To the north, we had MYCONI: beyond that we saw, to the north north-west, TINO and ANDROS; SIRA and JURA were detached below: we discovered, to the north-west, SERPHO, THERMIA, and ZEA; to the west, PAROS, ANTIPAROS, and SIPHANTO; to the south-west, ARGENTIERA, BURNT ISLAND, and MILO: NIO and SANTORIN were to the south; POLICANDRO and SIKINO to the south south-west; AMORGEO and STAMPALIA, to the south-east; CALMINO and LERO, to the east; PATMOS and NICARIA, to the north-east; in short, in almost every direction, we saw some islets and some scattered rocks, which can be interesting to none but navigators.

We met with some flocks on the back of the mountain: they consisted of the little sheep of ITALY and of PROVENCE, with short and coarse wool; and of a small species of goat, of which the poor eat the flesh, but of which the rich esteem only the kids. We saw nothing more wild than the shepherds, nothing more unfociable than their women. They were very far from  
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resembling those that formerly inhabited Mount IDA, the beautiful valley of TEMPE, or the flowery banks of the MEANDER. We had some difficulty in obtaining a few glasses of milk, of which we were much in want: we were obliged to beg for a long time, and pay beforehand. But is it their fault if they are rude and mistrustful? They have so frequently heard the Turks spoken of, that they think all men with whom they are not acquainted, are as unjust and malignant as they are.

The women of NAXIA, in imitation of those of SCIO, take a pleasure in holding in their mouth an inodorous substance which their island produces: they chew it, and turn it about in every way, as the others do mastic. The plant which furnishes it is known to botanists by the name of *atractylis gummifera*: it does not grow high, and flowers at the end of the summer.

This substance has been improperly called gum: on subjecting it to some experiments, it appeared to me rather to come nearer to resin than gum, or, to speak more correctly, it is a peculiar substance, which comes nearer to elastic gum than to any other. Citizen DESFONTAINES observed that the Arabs and Moors gather it in the environs of ALGIERS, and make it into glue; but he is ignorant of the proceedings which they employ. The root of this plant affords an aliment equally wholesome and nutritious.

The hills and rising grounds of NAXOS are covered with myrtles, arbutuses, lentisks, hypericums, favories, thorny brooms, leguminous shrubs, and several species of rock-roses, among which are to be remarked, in great plenty, that which furnishes the labdanum. The rivulets are bordered by oleanders, agnus-castuses, and plane-trees. As the season was advancing, our collection of plants was less considerable than at SCIO. We found, however, on the rocks, the shrubby Cretan pink, and a beautiful species of centaury, remarkable from its purple and very large flowers; from its downy leaves,

lyre-shaped at the lower part of the stalk, and oval at the upper part, with one or two opposite teeth towards their base. The scales of the calyx are ciliate, and the plant is from one foot to two feet high \*.

In the east part of the island is seen a mine, tolerably abundant, of common emery, which some English ship-captains purchase, as they pass, at a very low price. This metallic substance would be much more suitable to French captains, who ballast with stones their ships loaded with oil or cotton.

We found in most of the rivulets a crab, which we met with again at ALEPPO, in MESOPOTAMIA, and in PERSIA: we shall give the figure and the description of it elsewhere. •

The stay which we made in the country with the agent of the Republic, afforded us an opportunity of observing the proceedings of the cultivators, relative to caprification. It consists simply in placing on the fig-trees which produce only the second fig, the species known by the name of *fig-flowers*, or first figs, which appear and ripen a month or a month and a half before the others. The second figs ripen, as is well known, towards the end of Thermidor, and succeed each other without interruption till the end of Vendémiaire, and even later. The Greeks string together ten or twelve of these first figs, and suspend them in different parts of the fig-tree whose fruits they wish to fecundify. This operation, of which some authors, both ancient and modern, have spoken with admiration, appeared to me nothing more than a tribute which man paid to ignorance and to prejudices. In fact, in many countries of the LEVANT, caprification is not known: it is not at all made use of in ITALY, FRANCE, or SPAIN: it has long been neglected.

\* *CENTAUREA atropurpurea calycibus ciliatis, foliis inferioribus lyatis, supremis ovato-lanceolatis, basi appendiculatis, floribus purpureis:*

in some islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, where it was formerly practised, and, nevertheless, every where are procured figs very good to be eaten. If this operation were necessary, whether the fecundation were to be effected by the seminal powder, which might be scattered and introduced alone by the eye of the fig, or whether Nature, in order to transmit it from one fig to another, should make use of a little cynips, as has been commonly imagined, it may easily be conceived that these first figs in flower could not fecundify at the same time those which have attained a certain size, and those which scarcely appear, and which do not ripen till two months after the others.

Let us leave all the marvellous of caprification, and acknowledge, according to observation, that it must be useless, since every fig contains some male flowers towards its eye, capable of fecundifying all the female flowers of the inside; and that, besides, this fruit may grow, ripen, and become excellent to be eaten, when even the seeds are not fecundified.

The inhabitants of NAXOS cultivate the vine at the foot of the rising grounds, and in the plains which are not watered. Their wine is, in general, of indifferent quality, because they make it ill, and know not how to preserve it. This wine is all consumed in the country: it seldom happens that European vessels take in any in passing.

The island furnishes wheat, kidney-beans, garden-beans, and a few other legumes for the wants of the year.

Barley is in much greater plenty: ten or twelve thousand quintals are annually exported.

Oil, in a favourable season, may amount to the value of from 30 to 40,000 livres: it is of indifferent quality.

Oranges,

Oranges, lemons, bergamot-citrons, are not so plentiful as they might be, because there is no town sufficiently considerable within reach for a great consumption. CONSTANTINOPLE is too far distant: SMYRNA and SALONICA have them in their territory, and receive, besides, those of SCIO. This article procures, however, every year, from 12 to 15,000 livres.

The peaches, apricots, pomegranates, pears, plums, walnuts, almonds, and figs, are consumed in the island.

NAXOS has sheep and goats for the wants of the inhabitants, a few small-sized oxen for husbandry, together with mules and asses for draught. The wool is of bad quality, like all that of the ARCHIPELAGO, and is consumed in the country.

Cheese is an article of exportation somewhat considerable: it amounts to 8 or 10,000 livres: it is sent to CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, and SALONICA.

Cotton is little cultivated: a few private persons gather it for stockings, caps, and some coarse cloths, which are made in the family. It is the same with silk and flax.

The honey and wax are consumed in the island.

To the south of the town is a small salt-pan, where a few cargoes of salt are made for the capital. The PORTE has taken possession of it, and farms out its produce to the custom-house officer. The salt is nearly all sold to the inhabitants, at the rate of two livres for sixty pounds.

We were not willing to quit NAXIA without making an excursion to PAROS, without examining its mountains of marble, without seeing its  
harbours,

harbours, without taking a look at its inhabitants. This island, formerly one of the most important of the *CYCLADES*, had still a population somewhat considerable when it was subjected to the Ottoman Empire by *BARBAROSSA*; but it has suffered to such a degree since that epoch, by the pillage of the Turks, by the despotism of the government, and by the stay which the squadron of the captain-pacha makes there every year, that its inhabitants have imperceptibly disappeared, and that it no longer presents at this day any thing but uncultivated fields and villages partly destroyed. During the war of *CANDIA*, the Venetians also greatly contributed to its depopulation, by ravaging it, and destroying almost all the olive-trees, which constituted its principal wealth.

*PAROS* had still six thousand inhabitants at the beginning of the century: at the present day there are reckoned scarcely two thousand. The European consuls have withdrawn from it long since; the catholics have fled, and the Greeks who remain, idle and wretched, see themselves exposed every year to the stick of the officers of the captain-pacha's squadron, to the sword of the sailors, to the rapacity of all.

*PAROS* lies two leagues to the west of *NAXOS*: its extent is not near so considerable; but it has in proportion a much greater quantity of lands fit for culture. Its mountains are less elevated, its rising grounds less arid, and its plains would be as fertile, if they were as well watered.

The harbour of *NAUSSA*, situated to the north, is one of the finest and most spacious in the *ARCHIPELAGO*. Here are still to be seen the remains of the batteries which the Russians had erected for defending its entrance, when, masters of the *ARCHIPELAGO* in their war before the last with the Turks, they had made *PAROS* the depot of their forces.

This harbour is unwholesome in autumn and towards the end of the summer, on account of some marshes which are situated at the head of it. The Russian army suffered from them to such a degree, that it was obliged to quit the place, after having lost a great number of sailors and soldiers.

There are three harbours on the east side of the island: the first, called *PORT SANTA MARIA*, towards the north point, is sheltered, by some islands, from winds from the north and south; but it is open to the north-east, which prevents ships from frequenting it in winter.

The harbour of *MARMORA* lies in the middle. Near there is seen Fort *SANT ANTONIO*, in which *VENIERI*, prince of the island, sustained for a long time all the efforts of *BARBAROSSA*. He gave up this important post only because the garrison were in want of every thing, and perishing with thirst and hunger.

The harbour of *TRIO* lies lower down: it is, like the first, sheltered by some islands, but open to southerly winds. The captain-pacha remains at anchor here every year for upwards of a month, till the return of the gallies and small vessels which he dispatches to the neighbouring islands, in order to collect the impost to which they are subject.

There is only one harbour to the westward, at the head of which the principal town is built. Vessels of burden anchor without, under shelter of some islets, as well as in the narrow channel that separates *PAROS* from *ANTI-PAROS*.

The modern town is built on the ruins of the ancient. At this day it is no more than a wretched village, while it was formerly one of the largest, richest, and handsomest cities of the *ARCHIPELAGO*; and what comes to  
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the support of the testimony of the ancient authors, are the fragments of cornices, capitals, and pillars, which are seen scattered about, or which are to be remarked in the walls of the modern houses and churches.

*MARPESUS*, situated to the westward of the harbour of *MARMORA*, is the most lofty mountain in the island: this it is that furnished more particularly the marble which the Greeks drew from *PAROS*. Near an ancient quarry, here is still to be seen the bas-relief sketched on a rock of which *TOURNEFORT* has spoken, and of which *M. DE CHOISEUL* has given a drawing.

*ANTIPAROS*, known formerly under the name of *OLIAROS*, is remarkable only for the extent of its grotto, all the details of which may be consulted in the two authors that I have just quoted. But ought it to be considered as a quarry from which marble was extracted for a length of time, or as a vast cavity, such as naturally exist in most calcareous mountains? The silence of authors leaves us in suspense, and the inspection of the spot affords us no greater information in this respect.

The inhabitants of these two islands gather, for the wants of the year, wheat, barley, wine, sesamum, and some legumes. Cotton is the most considerable production, and the only one that furnishes the inhabitants with the means of paying their impost, and of procuring themselves such commodities as they are in need of. Fruits and herbage would be an article somewhat important, did not the Turks, who anchor at *TRIO*, frequently take possession of them by main force, or require them at a very low price. These two islands pay something more than 8,000 piastres by way of impost.

## CHAPTER VIII

*Departure from Naxos.—Stay at Nio.—Productions and industry of its inhabitants.—Departure from that island.—View of Sikinos and Pholegandros.—Arrival at Cimolis.—Fear of the inhabitants.—Description of this volcanic island.—Origin of Cimolian earth.—Digging in some ancient sepultures.—Shooting excursion to Polino.—Serpents and wild goats of that island.*

**I**N the afternoon of the 20th of Messidor (8th of July) we sailed from NAXIA; and, in a few hours, by means of the northerly wind, which blows regularly in summer over the ARCHIPELAGO, we cast anchor in the harbour of NIO. The distance from the one island to the other is scarcely four leagues; but, from the one harbour to the other, it is reckoned at least eight. That of NIO is on the south south-west side of the island, and that of NAXIA is on the west, as we have already mentioned.

The town is half a league from the harbour, on an eminence: it is tolerably well built, and appears to occupy the site of the ancient one; for some remains of old walls are still to be perceived in its western quarter.

The island, anciently known under the name of *Ios*, is lofty, mountainous, and intersected by some vallies, and some plains not very extensive: it is not near so fertile as PAROS, and is little more than forty miles in circuit. Its base is every where schistose or granitical, and the greater part of its mountains are calcareous.

The population of NIO amounts to three thousand seven hundred souls, all of the Greek church. There are at this day no more than two catholic families, including that of the agent of the French nation; which is the reason that public tranquillity is never disturbed there, as in most of the other islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, by the underhand dealings and intrigues of the Greek priests, every where jealous of the protection which FRANCE grants to the Latin churches.

NIO pays to the captain-pacha near 9,000 piaſtres, including presents and other customary expenses. A Greek waiwode, appointed by the PORT, is charged with the collection of the impost. He is also to keep good order, and administer justice, conjointly with six primates, whom the inhabitants elect every year in a general assembly.

This island, of too little extent to be sufficient for its own wants, has almost always experienced the lot of the other CYCLADES. History would make little mention of it, if HOMER, passing from SAMOS to ATHENS, had not anchored in its harbour, and died there a few days after. The inhabitants hastened to erect to him a tomb, no vestige of which has been remaining for a long time past.

Most of the medals of NIO bear a palm-tree on their reverse. This tree is no longer cultivated in the island: it is even rather scarce in the ARCHIPELAGO, and those which we saw at SCIO, in CRETE, and at NAXOS, have never yielded fruits that have arrived at maturity. The climate is not sufficiently warm to admit of it. We shall even remark, that the date ripens with difficulty in EGYPT, when the tree is too much exposed to the cool sea-breeze.

Almost all the inhabitants of this island are cultivators: very few among them are mariners or merchants: active and laborious, they turn to pretty good account a soil naturally far from fertile. They neglect nothing to obtain manure, and to water the grounds intended to supply them with herbage and fruits.

When the labours of the country are finished or interrupted, the women employ themselves in spinning the cotton which they gather, and in knitting stockings and caps which they sell to their dealers, or to strangers who land on the island. We never appeared in the streets without seeing women running up from all quarters, who came to offer us some, and who frequently fatigued us by the perseverance which they displayed in getting us to purchase them.

This love of work enables the inhabitants of Nio to discharge the impost with punctuality, and procures to all a competence which one would not imagine them to enjoy at first sight. Here, as well as throughout the Ottoman Empire, long and unfortunate experience has taught the tributary subjects, that they must not exhibit too much comfort, still less make a display of wealth: not only would the taxes be presently increased, but the cupidity of some officer of the PORTE might not be satiated except by the ruin of all the inhabitants. The Turks, indeed, allow the *infidels* to live, provided they suffer to be snatched from them every thing that exceeds the first wants of life.

The island furnishes wine, not only to all its inhabitants, but also to those vessels which anchor in the harbour.

In a good season are gathered as much as fifty thousand okes of oil, of indifferent quality.

The wheat, barley, and legumes, are generally sufficient only for the consumption of nine or ten months.

Every year are exported, for ANCONA and VENICE, from eight to ten thousand okes of cotton, independently of a great number of stockings and caps, which pass into ITALY and into the BLACK SEA. There are likewise made some cotton cloths, which are consumed in the island.

A small quantity of wax and honey is exported.

Here are bred four hundred small-sized oxen, six thousand goats, and three hundred sheep. Cheese is an article of importation of little importance.

We staid but three days at NIO: a small Ragusan vessel being on the point of departure for ARGENTIERA, we determined to embark on board of her, and repair with her to that island. We set sail on the 24th of Messidor (12th of July) at break of day, with a light breeze from the south-east, which permitted us to get to windward as much as was necessary for passing to the northward of SIKINOS. A calm afterwards detained us upwards of three hours a mile from that island, till the north wind, which blew, as usual, about nine o'clock in the morning, allowed us to pursue our route.

SIKINOS lies seven or eight miles to the west-south-west of NIO. This island is lofty, mountainous, of small extent, and contains, as we were informed, but two hundred inhabitants. It has no harbour, and is little frequented at the present day by Europeans. Its productions consist of wheat, barley, wine, cotton, and fruits. It pays about 2,000 piaftres to the captain-pacha.

We presently perceived, three or four leagues to the south, *POLICANDRO*, formerly *PHOLEGANDROS*, an island a little smaller, and somewhat less productive, than *SIKINOS*. A moment after, we discovered the little desert island formerly called *LAGUSA*, and by the modern Greeks *CARDIOTISSA*, situated nearly at an equal distance from *SIKINOS* and *POLICANDRO*. Five or six leagues to the northward we left *SIPHANTO*, formerly known under the name of *SIPHNOS*; and we anchored in the road of *ARGENTIERA* about four o'clock in the afternoon, in six fathoms water. Our mariners let go but one anchor, and carried a mooring to the shore, as the anchorage is very safe in summer, and as it is, besides, sheltered in all seasons by *BURNT ISLAND*, which lies two miles off. (See *PLATE VI.*)

In the evening we repaired, with the captain, two servants, and two sailors, to the village situated on a height, a mile from the coast. We were greatly surprised, on our arrival, to find the inhabitants under arms, and above all to see them level their pieces at us, in order to prevent us from advancing. We inquired after the French agent, an old seaman, whom the nation has placed here to serve as a pilot to the ships of war which enter the *ARCHIPELAGO*. They then interrogated us; and, on our answers, warfare was no longer in question. The primates laid aside their arms, came to us, apologized, and not only invited us to enter their town, but also offered us every thing that might lay in their power.

We were not long in discovering the cause of this general alarm: our unexpected appearance at the town about six or seven o'clock in the evening, in numbers which fear doubled, tripled perhaps, had made the unfortunate inhabitants apprehend the return of the robbers who not long since had come to plunder them.

We were informed that twenty Mainots had surprised them on a holiday, while they were drinking and diverting themselves; and that, after having secured the small number of men in a condition to defend themselves, they had entered successively into all the houses, and had thence carried off the most valuable effects: they had pushed their cruelty so far as to torture, in a thousand ways, the old men, the women, and the children, in order to make them confess the place where their money was concealed. This scene of horror lasted a whole night. The vessel which had brought these Mainots, set sail the next morning without the inhabitants of ARGENTIFERA, who were unarmed, being able to do any thing more than deplore their melancholy destiny, and to address prayers to Heaven that these robbers might be swallowed up, with all their booty, by the foaming billows.

The Mainots, or Magnots, are Greeks who inhabit the south part of the MOREA, the environs of SPARTA, and more particularly the part which extends from MISITRA to Cape MATAPAN. Feeble remains of the Lacedæmonians, they are as ardent as their ancestors in defending their liberty, and in maintaining their independence. The Turks have sometimes obtained a trifling tribute from them, without ever having been able to subdue them entirely. Cultivators or shepherds, mariners or pirates, according to wants and circumstances, they are always ready to quit the small towns which they occupy on the Gulfs of CORON and of COLOKYTHIA, for the purpose of penetrating into the interior of the country, and establishing themselves on the mountains.

With this energy, and this love of liberty, one regrets to see among them robbers, who, not content with making war on the Turks that have unjustly dispossessed them of a part of their territory, also go sometimes to plunder the unfortunate Greeks of the small islands of the ARCHIPELAGO,

whom a same interest and a same religion should rather unite against their common enemies.

ARGENTIERA, anciently known under the name of *CIMOLIS*, received the name that it bears at this day on our charts, from a mine of silver, which is said to have been worked a long time with success. In the intention of satisfying our curiosity in this respect, we questioned the agent of the Republic, the primates, and some of the inhabitants. They all answered us, that they had, indeed, heard the old men speak of it, but that the thunder-bolt which had fallen on it, had no longer left any traces of it. The researches which we made on this subject, during our stay in the island, were fruitless: we saw nothing that had the smallest appearance of a mine; so that we should doubt its existence, if the awkward answer of the inhabitants had appeared to us dictated only by the interest which they have in concealing it from the Turks, who would be tempted, perhaps, to work it, if it came to their knowledge; which would attract them to the island, and be a perpetual cause of extortion.

The history of this island is confounded with that of *MILLO*, whose lot it has always followed, and to which it is, besides, very near. It is little more than eighteen miles in circumference, and its population is two hundred souls. Arid, mountainous, and volcanic, neither plains, vallies, nor watered lands, are to be seen throughout its whole extent; nor any thing, in a word, that can render it an abode in the least agreeable to the inhabitants. Some scattered vines, very few olive and mulberry trees, a great many uncultivated lands, very few which are fit for the culture of barley, wheat, and cotton: this is what ARGENTIERA at first presents to the eye of the traveller; but the trace of the subterraneous fires which have acted on it, sometimes with slowness, sometimes in a violent manner, merit, no doubt, to fix for a few moments the attention of the naturalist.

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The town is situated on a rock of red porphyry, very little changed by the action of fire. The texture of this porphyry is hard, and yet susceptible of a tolerably handsome polish; but the felspar, which is disseminated in it in little white points, is partly decomposed. In the environs are found other porphyries of a bright green and of a dark green, not so beautiful nor so hard as the preceding. To the west and to the south of the town are seen every where rocks of porphyry, white or reddish, more or less decomposed. That which has attained the last degree of decomposition, is friable, soft to the touch, and by no means ponderous: it is easily divided in water, and appears to have on linen and on cloths the properties of the best fuller's earth. It is this which the ancients knew and distinguished by the name of *Cimolian* earth, or earth of *CIMOLIS* \*.

Mariners who land on this island, as well as the inhabitants, make use of this earth by way of soap, and obtain from it the same results. They prefer, however, that which is taken from the bottom of the sea, in the road itself, because it is more pure, dissolves more quickly in water, and gets the dirt out of linen much better than the other †.

\* Citizen VAUQUELIN, member of the National Institute, a very distinguished chemist, to whom I communicated a specimen of this earth, analyzed it. Out of one hundred parts he found:

1. Silex	-	-	-	-	-	79 parts;
2. Alumine	-	-	-	-	-	5
3. Lime	-	-	-	-	-	4
4. Muriat of soda	-	-	-	-	-	2
5. Water	-	-	-	-	-	10

Total 100

† This yielded to Citizen VAUQUELIN, out of a hundred parts:

1. Silex	-	-	-	-	-	68
2. Alumine	-	-	-	-	-	20
3. Muriat of soda	-	-	-	-	-	5
4. Water	-	-	-	-	-	7
						<hr/>
						100

The Cimolian earth, taken from the rock which I have just mentioned, presents, when broken, the portion of trap distinct from felspar. There are seen in it a few spiculæ of black schorl, not decomposed; and what leaves no doubt respecting the origin of this rock, is, that it may be traced through all the alterations which it has undergone, from the beautiful red porphyry, almost entire, to the last state of decomposition of which I have spoken.

No rock here appears overthrown by the action of fire; those which are cleft at a great depth, on a sloping ground, are always in a great mass, and never present strata nor banks; while, in the other parts of the island, to the north-west, for example, every where are seen regular strata, fragments of rocks of various nature, more or less altered, and mixed with volcanic ashes, solid or porous lava. Here are to be perceived strata of pumice-stones, the greater part of which are in dust.

It is very evident that a part of the island has been formerly changed by the slow and imperceptible action of subterraneous fires, or by the vapours which they have raised, as we shall presently see at MILO, and that the other has been covered by the substances which a volcano has ejected and deposited in regular strata, as is in like manner to be seen at MILO, and particularly at SANTORIN.

The day after our arrival at CIMOLIS, the primates conducted us upwards of half a league from the town, on the west side of the island, to a place in the vicinity of the sea, where we perceived fragments of bricks and potter's ware, which would have sufficiently indicated to us the position of the ancient town, if tradition, among the inhabitants, could have left us any doubt in this respect. On a bank of lava of a yellowish gray, which would, at first sight, be taken for a clay loaded with saline substances, we saw about forty ditches dug beside each other, and a little farther, on a hillock of

the same nature, other ditches, which appeared to us to have been recently dug: the latter contained charcoal, human bones burnt, and fragments of earthen vessels. On one of the sides of this hillock was a square opening, which led us to a grotto, where we found four simple sarcophagi of unequal size, of a white porphyric lava, somewhat hard, and yet easy enough to be hewn. Their lid was wanting; but they were, in other respects, in tolerably good preservation: they were five or six feet in length, by two or two and a half in breadth. The grotto had the form of a long square, fifteen feet in depth, before which was a square vestibule eight feet in width.

This discovery gave us the idea of having the earth dug above the hillock, in the places where the ground echoed under our feet, and appeared not to have been moved. Our attempt was successful: the first strokes of the spade procured us some rude figures of baked earth, in rather bad preservation, such as a toad, a sphynx, and a cock, as well as a small vase with a handle, in the Etruscan style. As it was late, and we had with us only one man whom the primates had had the civility to order to come from a neighbouring field, we resolved to confine ourselves for that day to our first trials, and to return the next day with twenty workmen, in order to turn up all the hillock, and endeavour to discover some catacomb, into which no one had penetrated before us.

The captain of the vessel on board of which we had come to CIMOLIS, prevailed on us to embark in his boat; which saved us from the disagreeable necessity of going on foot or of riding, as the day before, on asses which neither had bridles nor halters, and on which had been put, by way of saddles, very inconvenient pack-saddles, furnished with four longitudinal pieces of wood, such as we had seen in almost all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

When we had doubled the cape the nearest to MII.O, about eight o'clock in the morning, the north wind, which was contrary to us, and a sea a little too rough for a common boat, obliged us to land near this cape, in a place where we found, at some toises above the level of the sea, a stratum of earth containing fossil shells, half decomposed, of the genus *Perna*, similar to those of PIEDMONT, drawn by LANGIUS, the analogy of which is not known to naturalists. These shells are very thick: the two valves are frequently found together, but almost always broken and in bad condition.

As it was already late, we quickened our pace, in order to dispose, as soon as possible, of our labourers, according to the plan of digging that we wished to execute. We caused some to clear away the earth from a catacomb which we suspected to find at a little distance from that which we had seen the day before. The others dug on the hillock itself where we had already found some figures.

The catacomb being entirely laid open, we saw, at the extremity, nothing but a sarcophagus cut in the bank of lava, and a vase of coarse potter's ware, with a narrow neck, which was broken through the awkwardness of one of the labourers. Those who were at work on the hillock, dug in several ditches, to the depth of three feet, without finding any thing but ashes, coals, some remains of bones, and fragments of earthen vessels of every form and every size. We regretted exceedingly, among others, a large brown vase, in the Etruscan style, on which were several figures of men painted red. We made some farther attempts in the environs without discovering any thing interesting.

On the following days, we learnt that all this ground had been dug repeatedly, at one while by the inhabitants of the island, who thought to find there treasures buried by their ancestors; at another, by some traveller, whom  
curiosity

curiosity had, like ourselves, brought into the island. Citizen FAUVEL, whom we saw a few years after at ATHENS, told us that he had also had people to dig in various places at CIMOLIS, by order of M. DE CHOISEUL, then ambassador at CONSTANTINOPLE; which had procured him some pieces of coin, and some ornaments for the use of women.

Independently of tradition, of the sepulchres, and of the fragments of brick and potter's ware, which indicate, in an incontestable manner, the site of the ancient town, there are on the coast, in this place, works somewhat considerable: cuts, canals in the bank of lava, probably for the purpose of affording a passage to boats; and caves for sheltering them from the rain and sun. Two or three hundred toises from the sea, are seen caverns dug by the hand of man in a stratum of pumice-stone, which, in all probability, have been places of habitation, or interment, at different epochs which history has passed over in silence. We shall frequently have occasion to speak of similar caverns in the course of our travels, and to present our conjectures on that subject.

The inhabitants of this island are so distressed, that they have very often some difficulty to pay 15 or 1600 piastres impost which the captain-pacha levies annually on them. Cotton is almost the only article that produces them any money. The women are employed, during the whole year, when the labours of the country permit, in spinning cotton with a wheel, sometimes with a distaff, and in knitting stockings for the Europeans. Mariners find, in all seasons, hogs, poultry, and eggs, to be purchased for the supply of their vessels; they also find sometimes pleasures which detain them too long in the roadstead, and make them forget their duty as well as the interests of their owners.

The dress of the women (*See PLATE XI.*) is as remarkable in this island as in almost all the CYCLADES: the petticoat does not reach the knee; the shift scarcely comes to the middle of the leg, and displays a wide pair of breeches fastened on the one hand to the waist, and on the other below the knee: the legs are covered with two pairs of stockings, stuffed in such a manner that they appear swelled. The neck is concealed under a corset quilted and stiffened with whalebone; a piece of velvet, satin, or cloth, trimmed with gold or silver net-lace, or set off by a simple embroidery, adorns their whole front; and, in their gala dress, two wide sleeves are fixed to the corset, and fall on each side to the middle of the thigh. In summer, all the arm is covered only by the sleeve of the shift. The head is enveloped with a handkerchief, which passes under the chin, and leaves fully exposed to view a face not unfrequently handsome.

POLINO, commonly known under the name of *BURNT ISLAND*, presents the same organization as CIMOLIS. Every where are seen porphyries decomposed, rocks white or reddish; every where traces of the volcano which has acted on it and on the neighbouring islands. Situated to the south-east of CIMOLIS, and to the east north-east of MILO, it is by no means extensive, but desert, and entirely deprived of water. Although it is covered with grass and shrubs, the inhabitants of CIMOLIS dare not suffer their flocks to graze there, because they are persuaded that the serpents, which are there very numerous, would soon occasion their death; and, nevertheless, they acknowledge that there are to be found in POLINO wild goats, which multiply abundantly, and brave the venom of those reptiles.

It was interesting to know whether there were in fact wild goats in that island, and whether the serpents, which were there to be met with, were as dangerous as the inhabitants of CIMOLIS told us. We resolved, in consequence,

sequence, to make a shooting party on the 27th of Messidor (15th of July), and to take with us two Greeks that were pointed out as very capable of seconding us. The primates announced to us jestingly, that there existed among them a law, by which no one could shoot on *POLINO* without their permission, and without delivering to them, on their return, half of the game. "We willingly submit," said we to them, "to this law; we will keep nothing but the skin of the quadrupeds that we shall kill, and we will give you all the rest." This, as will presently be seen, was *counting the chickens before they were hatched*.

Citizen *BRUGUIÈRE*, little accustomed to the fatigues of such a shooting party, contented himself with herborizing, and with picking up a few seeds and some land-shells, while I several times traversed the most rugged places of the island. My guides, like two dogs, hunted every where, examined all the rocks, ran into all the bushes, and displayed an ardour worthy of better success. Indeed, they put up some of the quadrupeds which we were in quest of, but I never could get at them: frequently even I could not see them among the rocks which they inhabit. I more than once discharged my piece at them loaded with ball, from a very great distance, without doing them any injury. In these pretended goats, I thought I recognized the *argali*\*, which is known to be common in *CRETE*, in *NAXOS*, and in all the south of *EUROPE*.

Our chase after serpents was more successful: I cut one in two by a musket-ball: towards the evening, our guides caught another of a different species, which belongs to the genus *Boa* of *LINNAUS*; but we could not discover the viper for which we were looking, and which is to be found in more or less plenty in all the islands of the *ARCHIPELAGO*.

\* *Capra ammon.* LINN.—T.

The boa, (*PLATE XVII. fig. 2. A. B.*) has a cylindrical body, of a yellow gray, marked with a number of irregular blackish spots. The head is oval, and obtuse; the snout is formed by a triangular scale, broad and short; the two scales which come next, are likewise broad and short: those which cover the body, are small, round, equal, almost hexagonal, and smooth: the abdominal ones, to the number of one hundred and seventy-two, are short and narrow. The eyes are small and sunk in the head. The tongue is forked, and the under lip is rounded. The tail is obtuse and very short. The caudal scales are twenty-two in number\*.

The mouth of this boa is not provided with fangs; which must occasion it to be placed among the species which are not venomous.

\* *Boa turcica griseo-flavescent, cauda brevissima, scutis dorsalibus minimis rotundatilis sub hexagonis.*

CHAPTER IX.

*Arrival at Milo.—Description of that island.—Its volcano, its grottoes, its mineral waters.—Situation of the ancient town.—A number of catacombs which are to be found in its environs.*

WE departed from CIMOLIS on the 28th of Messidor (16th of July) with the boat destined to keep up a communication with MILO, and to convey persons who repair rather frequently from the one island to the other. In an hour and a half, we landed in the quarter called *APOLLONIA*, where mules, which the primates of CIMOLIS had bespoke of those of MILO, had been waiting for us for some time. The passage is about two leagues, though the distance is not a mile between the nearest points of the two islands.

The coast on which we landed, presented to us a tolerably solid bank of yellowish earth, strewn with three species of fossil echini, with petrified terebratulæ, and with several fragments of shells. In the environs, were pumice-stones and various lava. Grottoes, dug by the hand of man, are rather common on this coast, and seem to indicate that there were formerly habitations in this part of the island: they have been formed, as at CIMOLIS, in a stratum of pumice-stone easy enough to be worked.

It took us upwards of three hours to reach the town by a bad road. Every thing that offered itself to us was volcanic. We saw every where porphyries more or less decomposed, white earths, somewhat similar to those of CIMOLIS; gray lava, ponderous, and in large masses: we perceived in

some places indications of small-grained iron-ore, and veins of ponderous spar, mixed with a red earth: we crossed hills uncultivated, dry, and arid: we went into a gorge of rather rapid descent, where enormous rocks of lava, suspended over our heads, threatened every moment to bury us by their fall. We at length discovered a tolerably handsome plain, in the midst of which was a town which, a short time since, was not inferior to any other of the ARCHIPELAGO; but which, at this day, scarcely presents any thing but ruins.

On entering it, we were struck at seeing on all sides houses fallen in, men bloated, consumptive faces, ambulating corpses. Every where the image of destruction and of death offered itself to our eyes. Scarcely do forty families, the greater part foreigners, drag on their unfortunate existence in a town which still reckoned five thousand inhabitants within its walls at the beginning of the last century.

TOURNEFORT had discovered, in 1700, that the air of MILO was unwholesome, and that the inhabitants were very subject to dangerous disorders; but this insalubrity of the air must have increased very much since that epoch, either through the effect of the stagnant waters which lie between the town and the head of the harbour, or through the pernicious exhalations which are incessantly rising to the east and to the south, from a soil acted on by subterraneous fires. To these causes of infection and mortality, may be added the bad quality of the well and cistern waters of which the unfortunate inhabitants of this island are obliged to make use.

Although this was not the most unwholesome season of the year, we had, nevertheless, been apprized of the danger that there was in sleeping two or three nights in the town; which determined us to go that very evening to the

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the monastery of ST. MARINO, *AYIA MARINA*, situated at a little distance from Mount ST. ELIAS.

We proceeded for half an hour in the part of the plain which extends from the town to the sea; we passed along some marshes, and a faltern of little extent; we followed the steep shores of the south coast of the harbour; we afterwards crossed a small arid plain, formerly cultivated, strewn with fragments of pumice-stone; then gaining higher ground, and still following a westerly direction, we saw banks of white, volcanic earth, somewhat similar to those of CIMOLIS, which were succeeded by considerable shelves of granites charged with vitreous points. The whole ground is covered with little grains of glass, which detach themselves from these granites with tolerable facility.

The traces of the road were not very easily distinguished, so rugged and uniform was the ground: our mules had some difficulty to keep their feet on it. It was curious to see these animals get over the worst passes without ever stumbling. Sometimes almost erect on their crupper, they spring forward on lofty rocks, almost perpendicular, and sometimes they descend steep declivities, if not with the same agility, at least with the same precision. The only danger that you have to run, in making use of these animals, proceeds less from them than from their conductors. The latter, accustomed to prick them with a spur with which their stick is armed, cannot prevent themselves on one side without the frightened animal wishing to spring on the other. In whatever situation you may happen to be, these conductors are so inattentive, so heedless, that, frequently spurring their mules unseasonably, they are the cause of their wincing on the brinks of the precipices which you have under your feet, and occasion to the rider a fright still greater than the danger.

We were advancing across these accumulated rocks: we had on our right the harbour, whose extent we were completely measuring; beyond, the village of *CASTRO*, or *SIFOURS*, seated on the summit of a lofty, pyramidal hill. Before us, Mount *ST. ELIAS* shewed itself almost entirely to our eyes\*. We crossed another bank of very hard and very ponderous lava, of a blackish gray, after which we found ourselves on an earthy soil, whence we discovered the monastery where we had resolved to pass the night.

A quarter of a league from the monastery, we saw a beautiful gypsum extracted from a stratum of deep earth, mixed with volcanic ashes, fragments of pumice-stone, and puzzolana. This earthy stratum extended to a considerable distance, and, in several places, exhibited excavations from which plaster-stone had in like manner been extracted at different periods.

The friars received us very well, and treated us in their best manner. In their house we drank very good water, as well as excellent wine; and though they live poorly all the year, and subsist generally on cheese, olives, snails, legumes, and fruits, we found there poultry, eggs, herbs, and delicious honey: at the same time they set before us oranges, apricots, plums, and grapes. Under their roof one may eat excellent mutton, lamb, and kids. The milk there is very good, game abundant, and what is better, no doubt, the air, in this part of the island, is very pure and very wholesome. The ruddy face of these caloyers manifested sufficiently that the noxious exhalations of the plain could not reach them.

The next morning, at sun-rise, we went to take a walk with the superior round the monastery. We saw passing some oxen, which were going to graze

\* It is much farther to the west than it is laid down on the chart of *M. DE CHOISEUL*.

on the stubble. A flock of sheep was browsing on the circumjacent mountains, and at the same time a tolerably great number of goats were on their way to the neighbouring woods. The barley and wheat had been cut for a long time; a part was already trodden out and put by; the other was soon to follow it. We traversed some vineyards, some orchards of olive-trees, and some fields covered with cotton. The grapes were beginning to turn black, the olive-trees appeared loaded with fruit, and the cotton promised a good crop.

On receding from the cultivated fields, we again found every where volcanic productions, and nearly the same plants that we had seen in the other islands; the prickly prinpinella, thymes, creeping wild thymes, savories, rock-roses, arbutuses, myrtles, and lentisks. We collected some seeds and some land-shells, after which we returned home. The superior carried us into the garden: some friars, in order to water it, had repaired thither as soon as it was day-break: it was spacious, and kept in tolerably good order: a part was planted with orange-trees, lemon-trees, cedrats or bergamot citron-trees, fig-trees, and several other fruit-trees; the other part was intended for garden-ground.

It was time to breakfast and depart. There was served up to us a kid stuffed with meat and bacon cut small, with pine kernels, raisins, and rice: next was brought a pilau made with a very fat hen, then honey, preserved sweet-meats made of bergamot-citron, and the same kind of fruits as the day before. We were regaled with delicious white wine and excellent coffee. We would willingly have passed a few months with these worthy friars, had we not had other countries to see, other regions to traverse. We took leave of them when we had visited their church, and left in the basin wherewith to remunerate them for the civilities which we had received.

It required upwards of three hours for us to arrive at the town where we wished to sleep, as well for the purpose of observing the aluminous grottoes of the environs, as of repairing to the volcano of *CALAMO*, of which no traveller, I believe, has made mention. We passed this night, as well as the following, in a spacious chamber, where we evaporated by degrees, over hot ashes, some very good vinegar, which we had brought from the monastery of *ST. MARINO*. This precaution always proved fortunate to us, when we were obliged to make any stay in marshy and unwholesome countries. Had we not neglected it at the moment when we were on the point of beholding again our natal land, death, perhaps, would not have surprised us; I should not, perhaps, have to regret, at this moment, my fellow-traveller and the best of my friends.

On the 30th of Messidor (18th of July), we repaired to the mountain of *CALAMO*, situated to the south south-west of the town. It is not very lofty, and the road leading to it is less rugged than that which we had travelled the preceding day. When we quitted the plain, we found lands uncultivated, volcanic, and mixed with fragments of pumice-stone: they appear to have been abandoned recently, to judge of them from the houses half-destroyed which are there met with, and the stone-vats in ruins which are to be found in most of the fields. This excursion took us an hour and a half. Before we arrived at the summit, we were apprized of the vicinity of some volcanic apertures by the odour of sulphur, which all at once struck our olfactory nerves.

A little below the conical summit of this mountain, is perceived a rent of a hundred paces in extent, which has been effected in the middle of a rock of heavy, ferruginous lava; it is flat, and covered with a saline crust, which echoes under the feet, and in which you sink [sometimes to the middle of the leg. There are seen some crevices, whence issues a very fetid smoke; and

and in whatever place you dig, the heat is so powerful, that it would be impossible to hold your hand there at the depth of a foot. If you remove the crust, you see sulphur sublimated into yellow spiculæ, so easy to be broken, that you cannot preserve them.

There also rises some smoke from the clefts of the neighbouring rocks. A few paces from this spot we found another mouth, which presented to us incrustations of a hard white matter, similar to Cimolian earth, more or less charged with alum. We saw there others, at a little distance, presenting the same substances: presently we were surrounded by smoke-vents. We saw around us different openings, whence issued a smell so sulphureous and fetid, that we could scarcely breathe. The heat of the ground was very sensibly felt: we both sunk at the same moment, and we thought ourselves swallowed up. Neither servants nor guides had dared to follow us. We were aware of our imprudence, and we hastened to leave the place.

We do not imagine that we discovered all the openings by which the smoke escapes; but we are well assured that the mountain is considerably heated towards its summit; that this heat, which is burning in certain places, is very moderate in some others, and that it is, in general, more perceptible wherever there is any considerable rent or fissure. A particularity which we remarked, is that the summit of the mountain presents a schistose stratum of about a toise in thickness, which has not experienced the action of fire.

We amused ourselves in scratching up the earth in several places; and we found, at the depth of a few inches, a white earth, warm and moist, which may be kneaded at pleasure: it is of the same nature as Cimolian earth,

earth, and, like it, exhibits trap still distinct from felspar\*. We thrust down our canes every where with the greatest facility, and without ever finding the smallest obstacle. It is not to be doubted here that Cimolian earth is a decomposition of the rock of porphyry itself, slowly attacked by heat and the saline and sulphureous evaporations which rise from the bosom of the mountain.

We saw, a little lower, strata of different nature, lava ponderous and ferruginous, fragments of pumice-stone, ochreous earths mixed, gray volcanic ashes, very fine and very light, which made us conjecture that the explosions which have taken place at the summit, are very ancient, and that they may be dated, perhaps, from the period when MILO, CIMOLIS, and POLINO, were at the same time subject to the action of the same subterraneous fires. The decomposition which the lava of CALAMO has experienced, is already in a very advanced state, and resembles that which is to be remarked in every part of the island. The upper strata are, in a great measure resolved into an earthy state. Gypsum has already been formed in some of these strata, and those which still have any solidity, are very ferruginous, and little different, as to appearance, from the scorizæ of iron.

We returned to dine at MILO; and, in the evening, we went to visit the quarter where is formed plumose alum, of which the ancients and

\* The analysis of this earth gave Citizen VAUQUELIN, on a hundred parts :

1. Silex	-	-	-	-	-	66
2. Alumine	-	-	-	-	-	20
3. Oxyde of iron	-	-	-	-	-	1
4. Lime	-	-	-	-	-	4
5. Muriat of soda	-	-	-	-	-	2
6. Water	-	-	-	-	-	6
Loss	-	-	-	-	-	1
						<hr/>
						100

moderns have equally spoken. It is a quarter of a league from the town, in nearly an easterly direction. At a distance are perceived the great banks of whitish earth, in which several openings have been made at different periods for the extraction of alum; but several of them have been closed, or have fallen in of themselves, owing to the bad manner in which the mines have been worked, and there is but one at present into which a person can enter. It is very probable that the grotto mentioned by *TOURNEFORT*, no longer exists at this day, since the description which he gives of it, cannot agree with that into which we ourselves entered.

Its opening is two feet square: it is situated at the foot of a steep declivity, on which we found crystals of gypsum grouped, of a particular form, which Citizen *HAÛY* has named *gypse laminiforme* (laminated or plate gypsum). After having pulled off our coats, and lighted our tapers, we slid down a slope obstructed partly by detached earth. The grotto afterwards rises and grows wider, and, as you descend lower, the heat becomes stronger and stronger. We placed a thermometer at the bottom to ascertain the degree of it, and we employed ourselves very quickly in examining the sides of the grotto, in order to get out of it with all expedition; for we experienced some difficulty in breathing, although our tapers constantly gave us a very bright light.

All the inside appears to be nothing but a white, friable earth, strongly charged with alum. The sides are clothed with a saline crust more or less thick: in different places are to be remarked crystals of gypsum, called *gypse aciculaire* (acicular gypsum) by Citizen *HAÛY*, united or grouped in beautiful white spiculæ, eight or nine lines long. There are also to be seen saline laminæ under a different form, and which, at first sight, resemble very fine carded cotton, that might have been, as it were, glued against the walls of the grotto. The microscope shews very small spiculæ of alum,

disposed in various directions. If you detach this saline crust, it easily breaks, and exhibits very loose filaments, united in bundles from one to ten, twelve, or fifteen lines in length. This is what the ancients and the moderns have called *alumen plumosum*, or plumose alum: some of the same is found in a few of the volcanoes of ITALY; and, according to PLINY, some formerly came from EGYPT.

Plumose alum is easily distinguished from the crystals of gypsum which are in the same grotto, not only by simple inspection, the one being in the form of needles, and the other in very loose filaments, closely confined, but also by putting them on the tongue: these last are insipid, while the other has a taste of alum, which is sensibly perceived.

We remained not more than five minutes in the grotto: we came out of it bathed with sweat, with an extreme want of breathing the open air. After resting a few moments, I went to fetch the thermometer which I had placed at the bottom: it indicated thirty degrees of heat.

The inhabitants told us, that all the part situated to the east, and to the south of the town, is hot to a certain depth. They spoke to us of grottoes, whence there issues smoke, and of others where is found a liquor extremely acrid and salt, of which TOURNEFORT gives some details. Alum makes its appearance every where, while sulphur shews itself only in a few places.

On the first of Thermidor (the 19th of July), we went to see the public baths called *LOUTRA*, situated at the bottom of a rising ground near the highway which leads from the town to the roadstead. You enter by stooping into a natural grotto, and you arrive by two narrow, difficult passages, at a spacious hall, where you find a basin of hot water strongly charged with  
alum

alum and marine salt. These two salts are united and crystallized throughout the inside of this hall. Although it is very hot there, we, nevertheless, breathed without any great difficulty, and we think that a person may pass a few hours without suffering, either in this natural vapour-bath, or in the water of the basin.

The Greeks formerly flocked from all the CYCLADES to make use of these waters, in most disorders of the skin, as well as in rheumatism and palsy. These baths were also for a long time frequented by persons affected with any venereal complaint. They are nearly deserted since the island has lost its population, and since the harbour scarcely receives any more ships.

A hundred paces from this spot is found, on the sea-shore, towards the place where the country-barks cast anchor, a very copious spring of hot water, which issues from different places, and some portions of which are seen to spout out even into the sea. It is so hot that a person cannot hold his hand in it, and its extremely acrid flavour announces that it is strongly impregnated with alum and marine salt, as well as the preceding.

On quitting these springs, and directing our steps to the north, we gained the heights, and, after half an hour's walk, we arrived at the opening of four very spacious grottoes, which now serve as a retreat for flocks. At first are perceived the traces of a considerable depression of the earth, which has taken place at their entrance, and which has discovered the part that served them as a vestibule. There are still to be remarked the traces of the staircase which afforded the means of descending thither, and the walls of the interior present square cavities, clothed with cement, which one would imagine to have been intended for containing water. The rock is gray, volcanic, porous, and appears to have been half-vitrified. On the right face of the first grotto, is seen a gallery five or six feet high, by about three

wide, which admits of descending by several divisions into the inside of the subterraneous cavern. As you proceed, you find, to the right and left, chambers from eight to ten feet square, the use of which it is difficult to divine. This first gallery is not always straight: sometimes it runs winding, sometimes it rises in an oblique line, and sometimes it communicates with other galleries dug three or four feet lower; which ought to be carefully remarked by those who entangle themselves in these places, for they would run the risk of getting dangerous falls if they went without precaution, and without, as it were, feeling their way.

We had for some time been examining these gloomy windings, with a flambeau in our hand, when we were stopped all at once by a wall in masonry, which had probably been erected for the purpose of intercepting all communication with the rest of the cavern. It required a sledge hammer and a great deal of time to make a hole and surmount this obstacle. The road rose behind this wall, and conducted us to a large chamber which communicated, on its right, by a door, with another room of the same size, and by four square openings, made in the thickness of the intermediate partition. These last are at the height of two feet: they are dug in the form of a trough or rather of a manger, and the angles of the jams have been pierced as if for the purpose of passing through them the halter of the animals that might have there been tied up to eat.

On the sides of these two chambers, are to be remarked projections in the form of brackets, which seem to have been intended for supporting lamps for lighting them. There are likewise seen niches of different sizes, the intention of which appears to have been to receive some piece of furniture or some articles of daily use. We made many more turnings and windings, and we came out of this subterraneous cavern with the persuasion that it has served as a place of habitation to men at a period, perhaps, when the inha-

bitants of the island, few in number, were obliged to conceal themselves, in order to avoid pirates or enemies who threatened their property and their life.

In this cavern, we experienced no other heat than that of all cellars: we there saw no trace of alum: every where the walls were very dry, and we breathed there with the greatest facility.

After having in vain made some attempts to learn from our guides, whether there were in the environs other grottoes or other subterraneous caverns worthy of remark, we continued our route in order to proceed to *CASTRO*, commonly called *SIFOURS* by the Provençal mariners, who have imagined that they found some resemblance in the elevated position of this village, with that of the same name which lies in the environs of *TOULON*.

We saw a few lands cultivated, and many others which might with advantage be so, if the inhabitants were more numerous. We soon got on higher ground, and we reached the foot of the peak on the summit of which the village is built. Here the road is made across rocks of basalt, slippery and almost inaccessible, which seem always on the point of detaching themselves in fragments. The village is dirty. The streets, or rather the ladders of rocks which form the divisions of them, are also dirty, covered with hogs and filth. No other than cistern water is to be found, and the smallest wind resembles a hurricane. But all these disadvantages are compensated by the salubrity of the air that is breathed on this lofty peak. Among the old men that we saw there, one of them, a hundred and two years of age, enjoyed good health: his ruddy look and his supple and muscular limbs still announced several years of life.

The women of this village employ themselves the whole year in knitting cotton stockings for the use of the country, and for that of the Europeans: they also make some coarse calicoes for themselves. The men cultivate the earth, or are mariners. Among them are reckoned fifteen pilots, for the ARCHIPELAGO and for SYRIA, who are employed by the ships of war belonging to the European powers that navigate these seas.

From this elevated spot, the eye reaches without obstacle over a vast extent of sea, and over some islands situated in the north part. It is said, that, when the horizon is clear, you can even perceive, to the north-west, the mountains of the MORÆA. You have a view of almost all the eastern-part of MILO. To the south you distinguish all the windings of the roadstead, and you have then before you an amphitheatre of hills and mountains clothed with verdure, and crowned by Mount ST. ELIAS, the most lofty point of the island.

When you have for some time enjoyed this majestic picture, the eye becomes fatigued; you wish to descend into the plain, and see near at hand, and in detail, other objects. On the 2d (20th of July) at break of day, on directing our route towards the roadstead, we found to the south south-west of CASTRO, after half an hour's walk, some ruins which we judged to be those of the ancient capital of the island. They extend to the environs of the sea, towards the cape designated by seamen under the name of *BOMBARDA*. They consist of a few portions of the walls of the town still standing, and ruins of ancient edifices which appeared to us to have belonged to temples, and lastly of an enclosure of large high walls in dry stones, constructed in so substantial a manner, that they are in much better preservation than those built with mortar. In these walls have been employed blocks of a solid lava, irregularly cut, but the angles of which correspond to each other

other with so much precision, that their junction forms an assemblage striking from its simplicity and solidity.

In the middle of this enclosure rises a natural hill, on whose summit there is at present a church of caloyers, which we conceive to have been built on the ruins of a temple. Independently of the ancient materials employed in the construction of this modern church, there are still seen some beautiful and entire pillars of granite, half buried in the ground, and some others smaller, but broken. In different places are perceived vestiges of ancient habitations, fragments of brick and potter's ware, excavations made in the rock, the greater part of which, still arched, and coated with cement, appear to have been so many cisterns.

The site of the ancient town, called *CLIMA* by the modern Greeks, has neither been visited by *TOURNEFORT*, by *M. DE CHOISEUL*, nor by any other traveller, since not one of them have spoken of it; chance led us thither, and to it too are we indebted for the discovery of the sepulchres which are situated to the east of these ruins.

After having passed a deep ravine, the hill which we met with was formed of a light white stone, partly vitrified, and somewhat similar to pumice-stone. Here it was probably that the inhabitants of *MILLO* had dug their burying-places at an epoch which is unknown to us. Whoever has seen the catacombs in the environs of *ALEXANDRIA*, will here discover the same genius and the same taste which planned the former. Among them are to be found some, which entirely resemble certain chambers of the catacombs of *EGYPT*, where are seen pillars cut in tufa, façades sculptured round sarcophagi, and even garlands painted on the cement with which they were coated on the inside. But those of *MILLO* are, in general, smaller than those of *EGYPT*, and we met but with one in this quarter, which was distrib-

buted into several chambers, all so disposed as to terminate at a common vestibule.

As you proceed along the hill, the catacombs become more numerous. Some are seen in a few steep places, several rows the one above the other, and some are perceived even on the declivity of the opposite mountain; but you must still go a little farther, and on the very top of the hill, in a place called ΤΡΥΠΙΤΙ\*, in order to be astonished at their number, their proximity, and the advantage which the inhabitants had found means to derive anciently from this situation, incapable of producing any thing, in order to make of it the asylum of the dead.

You descend eight or ten steps by an aperture two feet wide, and you find yourself in a chamber twenty-five or thirty feet long, by eight or ten wide, and eight or nine high. Each of these catacombs generally contains seven sarcophagi, three on each side, and one alone at the further end; but this was not an invariable rule, since, out of the number, we met with some, where there were but five sepulchres, two on each side, and one at the further end; others, much smaller, where three only could be reckoned; and some, indeed few in number, where the sepulchres were to the number of eight, two of which were at the farther end of the chamber.

Here the places of the dead did not consist in cells deeply dug into the walls of galleries, as are seen in the catacombs of ALEXANDRIA, but in real sarcophagi of five feet and a half or six feet in length, and of a foot or fifteen inches in depth, surmounted by an arch, the whole dug in the rock.

\* From τρύπη, which signifies hole.

We perceived Greek characters traced on the space which lies between the top of the arches and the beginning of the roof: but we were unable to decypher them, so much were they effaced. We doubt not that persons more experienced than we were in reading inscriptions, and who shall employ in this research the time necessary, may there discover interesting particulars, read perhaps names known in history, and find at least the period at which the Greeks of MII.O wished to preserve the remains of those whom death had just taken away.

We saw several families settled on these catacombs: they inhabit huts, and apply themselves to the culture of the lands which are situated below. They avail themselves of the winter rains to fill with water the greater part of these sepulchral chambers, and distribute it, during the summer, according to the wants of the soil. We saw a cultivator employed in destroying the staircase of one of these catacombs, which he was going to transform into a cistern: a second was taking away the earth from another, in the same intention. A third was making at the foot an outlet, which he was at liberty to open and to shut at pleasure. But in all cases, whether these catacombs were deserted, or whether they were converted into cisterns, they all had still the sarcophagi which we have just mentioned.

We were assured, in the country, that sometimes, in clearing out these sepulchral chambers, there were found urns of earth, vases, and other utensils of the like nature; yet, whatever researches we made, it was out of our power to procure any. Some of those to whom we addressed ourselves, told us that they had given or sold several to the Russians, in the war before the last with the Turks.

If we consider the prodigious number of these catacombs, by the side of the ruins which occupy a rather great extent; if we pay attention to

the walls built with solidity, to the pillars and to the pieces of marble and granite which evidently belong to temples and sumptuous edifices; if we reflect on the advantageous position of the town within reach of the roadstead, on an elevated promontory, far from the infections of the plain and the dangerous vapours of the east and south part of the island, we cannot forbear to admit that it was formerly the site of the capital.

MELOS, according to THUCYDIDES, was independent, and enjoyed the greatest liberty, long before the Peloponnesian war, in which all GREECE, the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and the principal towns of the west coasts of ASIA MINOR, had alike taken part. The inhabitants of MELOS, strongly solicited by the Athenians on the one hand, and, on the other, attached to the Lacedæmonians, from whom they descended, wished, in the midst of this terrible war, to remain quiet, and observe a wise neutrality. The Athenians were so irritated at this conduct, that they dispatched NICIAS with a fleet of sixty ships, and two thousand land-forces, to punish them for the refusal which they had made to furnish their quota of troops. NICIAS ravaged the island; but he could not, with so feeble an army, succeed in taking the town, which was defended by all the inhabitants assembled.

The Athenians, some time after, sent two other generals, who were not more successful than NICIAS, although their army was more numerous; but PHILOCRATES having brought fresh troops, the Miliots were reduced to the greatest extremity, and obliged to surrender. The Athenians, on this occasion, no less implacable in their resentment than ferocious in their vengeance, indiscriminately massacred all the men in a condition to bear arms, and made slaves of the women and children, whom they carried away to ATTICA.

The island was re-peopled by five hundred persons whom they sent thither, and to whom they gave the property of those that they had just murdered. In the mean time the Athenians, conquered in their turn by **LYSANDER**, general of the Lacedæmonian troops, and obliged to surrender at discretion, found themselves forced to recall their colony, and the unfortunate remains of the Miliots were then enabled to return to their island, and to put themselves again in possession of the property that had been taken from them.

This island, like all those of the **ARCHIPELAGO**, passed under the domination of the Romans; it afterwards made part of the empire of the East. **MARCO SANUDO** united it, with all the **CYCLADES**, to the dutchy of **NAXOS**. It was then detached from it in favour of **FRANCESCO CRISPO**, and at length subjected to the Ottoman Empire of **BARBAROSSA**.

**MILLO** is about sixty miles in circumference: its harbour, one of the finest and most spacious of the **ARCHIPELAGO**, can contain a numerous fleet: it has, like that of **NAUSSA**, in the Island of **PAROS**, the inconvenience of facing the north; which is the reason that a ship can with difficulty get out of it, because the wind, in these parts, constantly blows in summer, and very frequently in winter, from that quarter. Although the anchorage is every where good, vessels, in the winter season, prefer sheltering themselves from the north wind behind the promontory, near which we have said that the ancient town was built. Near the entrance of the harbour are seen some rocks of basalt, against which the waves break with impetuosity and a dreadful roaring. The small desert island, called **ANTI-MILLO** by mariners, is to be remarked a few miles to the north-west, and appeared to us volcanic like that of **MILLO**.

The whole population of the island amounts not at the present day to five hundred persons, and this number would diminish daily, did there not come annually from the MOREA unfortunate people whom distress occasions to emigrate, and whom the culture of the lands attracts to MILO. The captain-pacha has some difficulty in levying at present 2500 piaftres by way of impost.

CHAPTER X.

*Return to Cimolis.—Departure from Santorin.—Description of that island.—Formation of its roadstead and of the three islands there situated.—Industry of the inhabitants.—Productions.—Impost.—Natural history.—Extent of the roadstead and depth of the sea.*

IN the morning of the 3d of Thermidor (21st of July), we departed from CASTRO, very well satisfied with having preserved, on a pestilential island, that health which was so necessary to us for the continuation of our travels. We went to the shore of APOLLONIA, and embarked for CIMOLIS, where we preferred remaining till we could find an opportunity of repairing to SANTORIN. That very evening we were so fortunate as to hire a boat belonging to SIKINOS, the crew of which were known to the inhabitants of CIMOLIS, and the honesty of whose captain was warranted to us by the primates.

This precaution is not to be neglected in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and even throughout the LEVANT, where every one may navigate without papers, without patents, or without commissions. An European traveller would be highly imprudent, were he to embark here with mariners for whom no one would be responsible: he would run a risk of falling into the hands of some pirates or of some villains, who would not fail to plunder him, and to throw him overboard, as soon as a favourable opportunity should offer.

We set out early on the 4th (22d of July), and rowed along the west coast of CIMOLIS, in order to get to windward as much as possible, waiting for the north wind to spring up. The sea was smooth, and the sky clear and serene. Our sailors, pulling at the same time, sang the exploits of the pirate LAMBRO, while we were observing the rocks of CIMOLIS, and the windings of that elevated coast. About nine o'clock they set the sails, and shaped a course towards the south point of SIKINOS. At two o'clock in the afternoon, we were to the southward of that island, and in the evening, before sun-set, we anchored in the little harbour of *SAN NICOLÒ*, situated towards the north point of SANTORIN (*PLATE VII*). The distance from CIMOLIS to SANTORIN is fifteen or sixteen leagues. Immediately on our arrival, we took a boat to go to PHIRA, in order to wait on the Latin bishop, for whom we had brought letters from NAXOS.

Nothing more frightful than the violent convulsion which has taken place over all the interior coast of *THERA*, *THERASIA*, and *ASPRONISI*; nothing more astonishing than the formation of the roadstead, and of the three islands which have issued from the bottom of the sea at known periods. The coast of SANTORIN, nearly a hundred toises in elevation in some places, presents itself like a perpendicular mountain, formed of various strata and of different banks of volcanic substances. There has been some difficulty in making a practicable road for ascending from the sea to *APANOMERIA* and to *PHIRA*. Every where else it would be impossible to climb up a coast rising so suddenly and so inaccessible.

On landing under PHIRA (A), we saw several small vessels moored to the rocks of the coast: we remarked a considerable bank of rose coloured puzzolana, in which have been dug very extensive storehouses in order to facilitate the exportation of the wine that the island produces. We observed, in ascending, several strata of volcanic ashes, gray or bluish; banks of pumice-

pumice-stone of a blackish gray, intermixed with fragments and blocks of basalt. We afterwards perceived different strata of puzzolana of a bright red; a rock of basalt on which are to be distinguished pumice-stones and volcanic ashes variously coloured; lastly, a very thick stratum of white pumice-stone, which extends over the whole surface of the island, and which is likewise found on *THERASIA* and on *ASPRONISI*. It took us near half an hour to ascend from the sea to the village.

Under *APANOMERIA*, the strata are nearly similar to those which we have just mentioned, except that, towards the middle of the coast, there is to be remarked a considerable bank of puzzolana of a beautiful red and of an excellent quality, which extends, at the same time diminishing in thickness, to the right and to the left, and which is found again in the same direction on the eastern coast of *THERASIA*.

The Latin bishop, named *DALENDIA*, received us with much politeness, made us share his table, lodged us conveniently, procured us all the information that we wanted, and even carried his complaisance so far as to desire his nephew to accompany us in the different excursions which we undertook in the island.

The next day after our arrival, we visited all the north part. We went to *PHIRO-STEPHANI*, and to *ME'RE'VELLI*. We turned out of the road to see *SCAURO*, situated on a very lofty, volcanic rock, which advances into the sea. This is the see of the Latin bishop: here he generally passes the winter, and comes to *PHIRA* only in the summer. *SCAURO* was tolerably well fortified and sufficiently peopled when the island belonged to the Dukes of *NAXOS*. The inhabitants are at this day abandoning it by degrees, in order to establish themselves at *PHIRA* and at *PHIRO-STEPHANI*, two villages which appear likely to be soon united and form but one. From this spot

spot we went to **LITTLE ST. ELIAS**, a hill scarcely higher than the ground on which **SCAURO** and **MÉRÉVELLI** are situated.

The stratum of white pumice-stone which covers the whole island, is wanting in this spot: either the rains have carried it away, the ground being on a slope in the north part, or this hill has been the focus of a volcano a long time after the formation of this stratum; which is much more probable. In fact, in the upper part of **LITTLE ST. ELIAS** are to be perceived different apertures through which the subterraneous fires have escaped, and the substances that they have thrown out. All round are here seen blackish scoræ similar to drops of iron, and a hard, spongy stone, of a beautiful ferruginous red, which extends along the coast as far as **SCAURO**. Towards the foot of the hill, we found the same kind of puzzolana as we had seen the day before below **APANOMERIA**; and as it was nearly of the same height, we judged that it belonged to the same bank.

On the following days, we visited, both by sea and by land, the south part of the island as far as the point of **ACROTISI**. The coast, here as well as in the north part, is every where lofty, perpendicular towards the roadstead, and formed of various volcanic strata, nearly similar to those which we had remarked below **PIIRA**. The ground lies more or less on a slope from this coast to the other, and is every where covered, as we have said elsewhere, with several toises of worn down pumice-stone, on which has been formed a little vegetable earth. Mounts **ST. STEPHEN** and **ST. ELIAS** tower above all the land of **SANTORIN**, and though lightly covered, in some places, with the same sort of pumice-stone, it is seen that they have not experienced the action of fire. They are entirely calcareous, and formed of a whitish marble, of a rather bad quality.

What we say of **THERA** or of **SANTORIN**, likewise applies to **THERASIA** : this last, like the other, is covered with several toises of pumice-stone: its coast is lofty, and perpendicular towards the roadstead, and the ground lies on a slope to the opposite coast. **ASPRONISI**, formerly **AUTOMATE**\*, is not so lofty, but it is, like the other two, rent internally and covered with several toises of pumice-stone, whence it has obtained the name of *WHITE ISLAND*, which it bears at present†.

After having visited with the greatest attention **THERA**, **THERASIA**, and **ASPRONISI**, and convinced ourselves that these three islands, at a remote epoch, must have formed but one; and that there has taken place a sudden and violent depression which has divided them, it remained for us to see whether the three islands of the road presented an organization different from the other three. We employed a whole day in this examination, and we had reason to be satisfied in seeing that, even had not history told us any thing on this subject, these islands carry with them the stamp of the period of their formation.]

From **PHIRA** we descended to the little harbour which is situated at the foot of the coast (A). There we took a boat, and went to land on Little **KAMMENI**, called *MICRA CAÏMENI* by the Greeks. The distance from the harbour to the island is reckoned two miles. It is of a conical form, and is separated from the other only by a very narrow channel, in which boats and vessels sometimes moor.

\* *Thera, cum primum emerfis; calliste dicta. Ex ea avulsa postea Therasia; atque inter duas enata nunc Automate.*—**PLIN.** Hist. Nat. lib. iv. cap. xii.

† From *ασπρη*, white, and from *γρη*, island.

On this island nothing is seen but volcanic ashes, blackish or reddish, which have run in all directions, and have issued from the crater that is discovered on the summit. Among these ashes are some fragments of basalt, and there is already to be perceived a commencement of vegetation; among others may be remarked a little fig-tree and some graminaceous plants.

NEW *KAMMENI*, *NEA CAÏMENI*, is upwards of a mile in length, and presents a frightful aspect when it is viewed near at hand. It is entirely studded with blocks of black basalt, broken, sharp on their edges, and irregularly heaped up. We landed in a small cove (B). The waters there are of a greenish yellow: they have lost their transparency, so much so, that we could not perceive the bottom at the depth of a foot. The colour of the waters, in this place, is distinguished very well from *PHIRA*, especially when the sea is smooth. A few yards from the shore is a little morass (C), where the waters are more coloured than in the cove. As they cannot be renewed there in the summer, they exhale an odour so fetid, that we had like all at once to have fainted: we got away very quickly from so infectious a spot, and we wished to attempt to penetrate into the interior of the island; but all our efforts were fruitless; it was impossible for us to walk on these sharp-edged masses of basalt, without running the risk of having our feet cut, and our limbs broken at every step.

To the east of the morass is a conical eminence, on which are still perceived the different mouths whence issued fire at the time of the formation of the island. It is covered with volcanic ashes of various colours, worn down basalt and pumice-stone, on which vegetation is just beginning to establish itself. The rest of the island is less elevated, and neither presents earth nor ashes, nor any sort of plant.

Though the waters of the cove and of the morafs, of which we have juft fpooken, are ftrongly coloured by exhalations and fubftances which are probably detached from the bottom; though this place is very certainly the focus of a volcano, which, perhaps, will, ere long, manifefit itfelf by fome fresh explofion, the waters, neverthelefs, did not appear to us hot: true it is that we had it not in our power to judge of them but by the contact of the hand. We had left our thermometers at PHIRA. We likewise remarked on the weft coaft of *HIERA* fome receffes where the water appeared in like manner flightly coloured; and on almoft all the fhore of thefe three iflands is feen a ferruginous fubftance which is depofited there, and which tinges the ftones of a beautiful deep red.

The ifland *HIERA* or Old *KAMMENI* is upwards of a mile in length; like both the preceding, it appears to be nothing but a mafs, without regular ftrata, of volcanic fubftances, and particularly of rocks of bafaltes. It is covered with a little earth mixed with pumice-ftones and volcanic afhes, which has given rife to the vegetation that has there been long eftablifhed. This ifland is defert and uncultivated. In the fummer only afles and mules are fent thither to graze. We think that the vine and the olive-tree would grow there tolerably well, and that feveral families might live there on the produce of the land. There is not as yet any trace of vegetation on the part marked (D): it is lefs elevated than the reft of the ifland, and evidently appears of more modern formation. It is nothing but fragments of bafaltes, on which no earthy ftratum is yet formed, and the period even of this muft be remote, unlefs fome fresh explofion cover again thefe rocks with volcanic afhes which may promote vegetation.

On *HIERA*, are remarked clefts fomewhat confiderable, which take the direction of its length, and extend almoft from the one extremity to the

other. They have, no doubt, been occasioned by the earthquakes which have very frequently taken place in these countries.

It is time to speak of the formation of the three volcanic islands that are situated in the road of *SANTORIN*, the periods of which are tolerably well marked, either in the ancient, or in some modern authors.

*TOURNEFORT* has not sufficiently well observed that the two islands *THERASIA* and *ASPRONISI* must have made part of the large one, and that the two *KAMMENIS*, the Old one and the Little one, which existed in his time, appear, even at first sight, of more modern formation than the others. *THERASIA*, on which *PTOLEMY* places a town, and which *PLINY* conjectures, with reason, to have been detached from *THERA*, cannot be taken for *ASPRONISI*, nor the latter for the former, as *TOURNEFORT* imagines. *ASPRONISI* is not considerable enough for there ever to have been on it the smallest little village, the smallest habitation; while *THERASIA* has sufficient extent, and its territory is sufficiently good to have been always the site of a town, as one is still to be seen there at the present day. *TOURNEFORT* adds that *THERASIA* always bore the name of *HIERA*. The position, according to authors, of the Island of *HIERA*, between *THERA* and *THERASIA*, leaves no doubt, and demonstrates that *TOURNEFORT* is mistaken. Besides the inhabitants of *SANTORIN*, whom we must consider as authority in this case, still name those islands as we have marked them on the chart, the one *THERASIA*, the other *ASPRONISI*, and the third *PALAIKAÏMENI*.

*HIERA* or the Sacred Island was dedicated to the gods of hell, because it had been seen to issue all on fire from the bottom of the sea through the effect of a volcano. *PLINY* says that this event took place one hundred and thirty years after that which had separated *THERA* from *THERASIA*. *M. DE*

CHOISEUL affirms, according to Father HARDOUIN, that there is a mistake in the dates, and that it was not till forty years after that the Island of **Hiëra** made its appearance.

BRIETIUS says that in the year 47, there arose all on a sudden from the bottom of the sea, near **THERA**, a small island which had not yet been seen\*.

In the year 196, before J. C. says JUSTINUS, there was seen to issue after an earthquake, an island between **THERA** and **THERASIA**, which was called **SACRED**, and which was dedicated to **PLUTO** †.

DION CASSIUS mentions the sudden appearance of a small island near that of **THERA**, during the reign of **CLAUDIUS**. SYNCELLUS mentions it in the forty-sixth year after J. C. and places it between **THERA** and **THERASIA**. But it appears that, some time after, there arose another island called **THIA**, which disappeared or was united to the *Sacred* Island. Mention is made of it in **PLINY** ‡, in **THEOPHANES** §, and in **BRIETIUS** ||.

\* Hoc anno (Cbristi 47) juxta Theram insulam, parua insula ante non visa, repenti apparuit; mare enim hoc Ægeum in hac parte sui, fertile fuit novarum insularum jubinde ex fundo æquoris erumpentium. BRIET. ann. mund. Venet. 1692. vol. ii. p. 63.

† Eodem anno, inter insulas Theramenem et Therasiam, medio utriusque ripæ et maris spatio terræ-motus fuit in quo cum admiratione navigantium, repenti ex profundo cum calidis aquis insula emerfit. Huic Sacra nomen est quæ vota Plutoni. Annus vero 196 ante Cbristum. JUST. lib. xxx. cap. iv.

‡ Et in nostro ævo Thia juxta eandem Hieram nata. PLIN. lib. iv. cap. xii.

§ Sub Leone Isaurico iconomacho refert Baronius: inter Theram et Therasiam cycladas insulas, primo vapor ut ex camino ignis visus est ebullire ex profundo maris per aliquas dies, qui paulatim incrassatus, et dilatatus totus igneus apparuit, postea vero petrinus pumices grandes et cumulos quosdam transmisit per universam minorem Asiam et Lesbø, et Abydum maritimam Macedoniæ, adè ut etiam tota superficies maris iisdem contegeretur. In modo autem tanti ignis, nova repenti insula ex terræ congerie facta insulæ quæ Sacra dicitur, copulata est.

|| In Ionio mari, inter Theram et Therasiam, erupit ignis è mari, quem secuta ingens vis pumicum, et tanta, ut totam Ægei maris faciem impleret; ac denique indidem emerfit insula ex terræ congerie facta, quæ sacræ insulæ copulata est. Qui maris locus semper fecundus in historiis legitur. BRIET. page 236.

Nothing

Nothing remarkable afterwards happened till 1427, when a fresh explosion produced a rather great and very distinguishable increase to the Island of HIERA (D), mention of which is made in some Latin verses engraved on a marble at SCAURO, near the church of the Jesuits\*. In 1573, was formed, after a fresh explosion which lasted for some time, the Little KAMMENI, such as we see it at the present day. Father RICHARD, a Jesuit, says that, in his time, there were several old men in SANTORIN, who had seen that island formed in the middle of the sea, and that they had, on that account, named it MICRA CAÏMENI, *LITTLE BURNT ISLAND*.

When TOURNEFORT visited SANTORIN at the beginning of the last century, the New KAMMENI was not yet in existence: it was not till some years after, from 1707 to 1711, that it issued by degrees from the bosom of the sea, after various earthquakes. Every increase that this island received, was announced by a dreadful noise, and followed by a white smoke, thick and infectious. The whole was terminated by a shower of fragments of basalt, pumice-stones, and ashes, which were spread to a great distance. The details of this memorable event are reported at length, either in the journals of the times, or in a Latin pamphlet made on the spot by a Jesuit priest.

If the reader reflect on the considerable changes which the Island of SANTORIN has experienced through the effects of a volcano that acts on it from a very remote period, he will remark in them four principal periods, very

*Magnanime franciscæ heroum certissima proles  
Vides oculis clades, quæ mira dedere  
Mille quadrigentis Christi labentibus annis  
Quinquies undenis istis jungendo duobus  
Septimo calendas decembris murmure vasto  
Vastus Therasius immanis saxa camenæ  
Cum gemis, arulsi, scopulosque è fluentibus imis  
Apparet, magnum gignet memorabile monstrum.*

distinct from each other. At the first period the island was limited to Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS, as far as the environs of PIRGOS and of MESSARIA, the only places that are not *volcanized*. The second was the formation of the rest of the island as far as THERASIA and ASPRONISI. The roadstead then did not exist, and the island was as large again, of a rounded or oblong form: the ground rose in the form of a *calotte* more or less irregular at its summit, commanded at one of the extremities by Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS. The third period was the sudden and extraordinary depression which took place in the middle of the island, whence has resulted the roadstead. The fourth and last period, is the formation of three islands which have successively issued from the bottom of the sea. Perhaps, there will one day be formed others; perhaps, all these islands will be united to each other, and all the space which the roadstead occupies, will again be filled up. It is impossible to foresee all the changes that may take place as long as the volcano which exists at SANTORIN, shall be in activity.

We say that there was a period when this island was less considerable than it has been in the sequel. In fact, if we consider that the three islands which form the road, are entirely composed of substances vomited forth by a volcano, disposed in strata and in banks, corresponding to each other, we shall be inclined to believe that all these substances thrown out from the bottom of the sea, have formed an island nearly circular. And then if we remark around the roadstead the coast which is perpendicular a great way into the sea, is it not evident that there has been in the sequel a sudden depression of a great part of the island which went to occupy the voids that the anterior explosions must have formed? This depression by occasioning the circular rending which is to be remarked all round the roadstead, formed of a single one, these islands known in antiquity by the names of THERA, THERASIA, and AUTOMATE. Even though the ancient authors had not transmitted nearly the period at which the Island HIERA issued from the bottom of the

sea, even though we had not known the exact period of the sudden appearance of the Little and the New KAMMENI, inspection alone would indicate that these three islands are of a formation very posterior to that of the other three; for, independently of their not presenting the same organization, they are not covered with that thick stratum of white pumice-stone which is to be remarked in the Islands of THERA, THERASTIA, and ASPRONISI. This stratum appears evidently to have been produced before the appearance of THERA, and even before the formation of the roadstead, since no traces of it are to be seen on that island, and since it does not shew itself on any of the advanced parts of the coast.

SANTORIN, according to PLINY, received the name of *CALISTA* or *HANDSOME ISLAND*, after having issued from the bosom of the waters: it afterwards bore that of *THERA*, one of its kings: the name which it has at the present day, is formed of that of St. IRENE, to whom the island was dedicated under the emperors of the East.

It is not to be doubted that if we consider what SANTORIN must have been at its second period, because it is still so at this day, we shall easily be persuaded that it must have been one of the finest and most fertile islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. Its circular form, a soil entirely susceptible of culture which rose by degrees from the borders of the sea in the form of a *calotte* flattened on its top, Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS, situated at one of the extremities, covered, perhaps, with verdure and wood—every thing concurred to render SANTORIN, if not a very beautiful island, at least one of the most agreeable of the ARCHIPELAGO; for, in the supposition that this mountain was covered with vegetables, it contributed to the embellishment of the island; it furnished wood to the inhabitants, and afforded them, perhaps, a very copious spring of water. In fine, if this mountain was clothed with wood before the rains had washed away the earth which covered it, the latter

latter must have retained the rain waters, must have permitted them to penetrate into its bosom; and then the small spring of water, which is perceived there towards *MESSIRIA*, must have been much more copious than it is at the present day, when this calcareous mountain is almost entirely naked.

The other islands of these seas have their surface very unequal. They are no more than naked mountains, covered with rocks: there are but a few vallies, a few small plains, and a few rising grounds that are cultivated. Their aspect is far less agreeable than that which *SANTORIN* must have presented at this period; and at the present day, even notwithstanding the small extent of its territory, though it wants a good harbour, though it has none but cistern water, it is still the most populous and the richest of all the small islands of the *ARCHIPELAGO*.

In the *Annals of the World*, by *BRIETIUS*, we find that, thirty years before the Ionic emigration, *THERAS*, son of *AUTESION* and nephew of *POLYNICES*, caused a colony of Minyæ to be conveyed to *CALISTA*, in order to augment there the number of the inhabitants. The Minyæ were descendants of the Argonauts, who had followed *JASON* into *COLCHIS*, and who, on their return, had stopped at *LEMNOS*, and had there established themselves. The descendants of these heroes, driven some time after from *LEMNOS* by the Pelasgi, took refuge in *SPARTA*, where they were kindly received. Lands even were given to them, and they were married to girls of the country. But as these strangers, ever restless and ambitious, were in the sequel convicted of endeavouring to seize on the sovereign authority, they were apprehended and condemned to death. Love inspired one of their women with a trick which succeeded. Having obtained permission to see their husbands previous to the execution of the sentence, they changed clothes with them, and, by means of this disguise, the husbands got out in the dark from their confinement, and fled to Mount *TARGETUS*. Then it was that

**THERAS** demanded them, obtained them, and conducted them to *CALISTA*, which, since that time, was called *THERA*. Thus it was, says the author, that this wise man found means to render useful rebels and plunderers who had deserved death.

The inhabitants of **THERA**, it is said, neither mourned for children who died before the age of seven years, nor for men who ceased to exist beyond fifty: the former, because they had not yet entered into life; the latter, because they were become useless. This custom, more barbarous than rational, could not have been introduced but among an insulated people, few in number, where all the merit of a man consists in producing children and in employing his arm in defence of his country. But when it is necessary to enlighten; when it is necessary to guide youth, proud, presumptuous, and unskilful; when it is necessary to seize, with a steady, experienced hand, the helm of affairs, in a vast State, agitated and threatened on all sides; when, through the extent of conceptions, it is necessary, in the present and the past, to read the future without being mistaken, will it then be said that, at fifty years old, man has lived long enough, and that there remains nothing more for him to do than to quit a life henceforth useless to himself and to his fellow-creatures? Undoubtedly not: it is at this age, much more than at any other, that he is capable of serving his country with his head, if he be less qualified to serve it with his arm.

But let us leave fable and fictions, and go and examine on Mount **ST. STEPHEN** the ruins of the ancient city: we shall judge, from their aspect, how populous and flourishing **THERA** was under the Roman Empire.

On passing below **MESSARIA**, we saw in the wall of an enclosure, a statue of a woman in marble, to which the head, the arms, and the legs, were wanting. Notwithstanding the bad condition in which it was, this statue

appeared to us to have a tolerably handsome form. We alighted from our mules at the foot of the mountain, and ascended by a road rather steep, and so much the more difficult, as in several places the ground is covered with loose, worn down pumice-stone.

About a third of the way up the mountain there is a small spring of water, which we found very good: it serves to quench the thirst of some sheep and goats which graze in this quarter. Having reached the summit, we directed our steps to the left, leaving on the right Mount St. ELIAS, which is much more elevated than the ground on which we stood.

What first struck us, were some sarcophagi cut in a calcareous rock. On advancing, we discovered the remains of the walls which formerly surrounded the city: we perceived vestiges of houses and some cisterns in pretty good preservation. We presently saw the modern church dedicated to St. STEPHEN, probably built on the ruins of the temple of MINERVA or of NEPTUNE. Farther on, in walking a little obliquely to the left, are found the ruins of another temple. Here are seen walls very thick, truncated pieces of pillars of a gray marble, scattered on the ground, and half-buried. Towards the extremity of the town is seen a rather large hexagon, of no great elevation, on which it is probable that there was formerly a statue. Was it that of MARCUS AURELIUS, or of ANTONINUS, which the inhabitants of THERA raised in honour of those emperors? By the side of this hexagon is a small deserted modern building, erected on the foundations of some ancient edifice more considerable. We remarked, at the foot of a wall, a marble sarcophagus, on the faces of which some foliage was sculptured in relief: at the two extremities were satyrs very much injured.

The Russians, we were told, carried off some interesting inscriptions, statues, and bas-reliefs: they broke several pillars in endeavouring to take them

away. Some time before our arrival, Citizen FAUVEL also dug for curiosities by order of M. DE CHOISEUL; which procured him a few pieces that had escaped the researches of the Russians. We also found some inscriptions which have not been remarked by the travellers who have preceded us, or at least have not yet been published by them: they were copied with the greatest care by LAZARUS ALBI, a priest distinguished by his virtues, his knowledge, and a profound study of Greek literature.

This town was of moderate size; its length was great in comparison to its breadth. The walls which surrounded it, had sufficient solidity, and must have defended it tolerably well; but it was its position on a very steep mountain, still more than its walls, which secured it from the attacks of its enemies.

From this place, the eye can extend to a great distance in every direction, except towards Mount ST. ELIAS, which is much more lofty. When the weather is fine, you perceive the summit of Mount IDA in CRETE, and you easily discover ANAPHE, ASTYPALÆA, Ios, NAXOS, and the greater part of the CYCLADES. The plain which is seen below, in the west quarter, is the most fertile and the most productive place of the island. Vessels anchor sometimes in summer off the shore at which this plain terminates. The bottom is sand and gravel.

SANTORIN, in proportion to its extent, is the richest and most populous of all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. There are reckoned on it five principal villages, in each of which is a primate: APANOMERIA, SCAURO, PIRGOS, EMBORIO, and ACROTIRI. The primates, distinguished by the name of *Epitropi*, are charged with the police of their district, with the convoking of the principal inhabitants for the assemblies relative to the affairs of the island, with superintending the collection of the imposts, &c.

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They are renewed every year, and appointed by the general assemblies of the people. Besides these five principal villages, there are several other smaller ones, such as *MEREVELLI*, *VOURVOULO*, *PHIRO-STEPHANI*, *PHIRA*, *GONIA*, *CARTERADO*, *VOTONA*, *MESSARIA*, and *MEGALO-CHORIO*. The population exceeds twelve thousand souls, almost all of the Greek church.

The number of Roman catholics has diminished since *TOURNEFORT*, for, in his time, they amounted to one-third of the inhabitants, and they form not a sixth at present. There are two bishops: the one Latin, who passes the winter at *SCAURO*, and the summer at *PHIRA*; and the other Greek, whose residence is at *PIRGOS*. Here Jesuits formerly resided; they have been succeeded by Lazarists: they both have been for a long time charged with the education of some young people. Here are, besides, two convents of nuns, the one Latin, and the other Greek: the Latin convent follows the rule of *ST. DOMINIC*, and the Greek that of *ST. BASIL*. The Greek priests are in this island as numerous as they are throughout the *ARCHIPELAGO*, and they are here almost as poor.

The inhabitants of *SANTORIN* are very laborious and very temperate: they are justly reckoned to have more morals and more probity than those of *NAXOS*. They are also much more industrious and much richer. They apply themselves with incredible activity to the culture of the vine and that of cotton. The women manufacture cloths of different qualities: they also knit caps and stockings, which they sell to strangers, and send to *RUSSIA* and to some towns of *ITALY*. It is the nuns who fabricate the finest and the best cloths. This trade is somewhat extensive, considering the small population of the island; and as the cotton which is gathered is not sufficient for the industry of the inhabitants, they draw it from the other islands, and in particular from *SCALA NOVA*, in the Gulf of *EPHESUS*.

Wine forms the principal revenue of the island: the most esteemed is that known under the name of *Fino Santo*. It is sweet, luscious, and of indifferent quality the first year: it becomes very good as it acquires age, and preferable to the best *CYPRUS* wine. The inhabitants sell it at no more than three or four parats the oke at the vintage. It almost all goes to *RUSSIA*. It is made with white grapes very ripe, which are exposed for eight days to the sun, spread on the terraces or flat roofs of the houses. They are afterwards trodden; then pressed, and the new wine is put into casks, which are carefully bunged till the fermentation has ceased.

The common wine is not very good: it is in general sweet, and easily turns sour. It is made with white grapes and with black grapes indifferently, which are trodden on coming out of the vineyard: the new wine is immediately drawn to be put into casks. As the grapes are too ripe and too saccharine, in order that the fermentation may take place more easily, the inhabitants are accustomed at *SANTORIN*, as well as in all the islands of the *ARCHIPELAGO*, to add a fourth or even a third of water. They suffer this wine to ferment about a month, after which the cask is closely bunged. On the lees which remain in the vat, a rather large quantity of water is poured, and it is left to ferment for eight or ten days. The wine which arises from it is then drawn off, and the lees are pressed. This wine, which is of a quality very inferior, serves, during the whole year, for the use of the inhabitants; the other is sold at one or two parats the oke to strangers.

The cellars are spacious and very clean: they are dug in the bank of white pumice-stone, which we have said covers the whole island. The upper part is cut into the form of an arch. Some rich individuals coat the inside of these cellars with a cement; others put none, and it appeared to us that this was not necessary. Although this substance is friable and rather soft, the arch, however, is very solid, and it seldom happens that any portion

at all considerable breaks off from it. The casks are placed in two rows. There is towards the entrance of the cellar a square vat, tolerably large, constructed in masonry, cemented on the inside with a mixture of lime and pumice-stone passed through a sieve.

The quantity of wine which is exported from SANTORIN every year, is very considerable: it is estimated, in an ordinary vintage, at a million of oke. Hence is also exported a small quantity of brandy. The inhabitants, deprived of spring-water, are scarcely acquainted with any other beverage than their small wine. They drink it, though turned four, and in this condition it is still agreeable. We ourselves made use of it with pleasure, and without inconvenience, during the intense heat which we experienced in the island.

Though the soil of SANTORIN is very dry, and far from fertile, the cotton tree and the vine thrive there extremely well. The surface of the soil is nothing but a mixture of pumice-stone, fragments of basalt, and vegetable earth, produced by the dung which is put on it, and by the decomposition of the vegetables which there grow. The cotton of SANTORIN appears to differ from the herbaceous cotton which is cultivated in the other islands: it is shrubby, and lasts fifteen or twenty years. It is cut annually even with the ground. The gathering takes place from the end of Fructidor to Brumaire.

The vine-plants are set at the distance of two or three feet from each other, and they are suffered to grow for ten or twelve years without being cut in any way. When it is thought that they have acquired a sufficient size, they are annually trimmed, at the same time more shoots are left than we leave in the South of FRANCE. The vine-plant is supported, in order that

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it may not trail, and the branches are propped by the means of some old cuttings of vines fastened all round. The grapes are ripe, and in a condition to be gathered, at the beginning of Fructidor.

A vine thus planted, cut, and trimmed, lasts not so long as those in our southern departments; but it yields a double and triple quantity of grapes: this consideration may easily determine the cultivator to make some trials in the warm climates, and in places where the lands are deep and light as at SANTORIN.

The other species of culture practised in the island are of very little importance. The land is not good enough for wheat. Only a little barley and some legumes are gathered. Fruit-trees are very scarce: the fig-tree and the almond-tree are almost the only ones cultivated. A few sheep, goats, and hogs, are bred. Asses and mules are made use of for draught: oxen are seldom employed for ploughing. At SANTORIN, no other fuel is used than wood and charcoal, which are brought from the coast of ASIA, or the lentisk, which the inhabitants go to cut at HIERA, and on some neighbouring islands.

SANTORIN pays about 55,000 piastres impost, including the land-tax, the karatch, the duty of two parats per oke, at which the wine is taxed, and the customary presents, every year, at the time of the arrival of the captain-pacha's fleet in the ARCHIPELAGO. The land-tax ought to be no more than a tenth of the produce, as it was settled at the time of the surrender of the island; but the waiwode, who farms this duty from the PORTE, has for a long time past levied on private individuals a fifth, without the latter ever having been able to bring their just remonstrances to a hearing.

The villages situated on the summit of the intersected ground of the roadstead, have a very singular aspect. The houses are half cut into the pumice-stone, half built on the outside of it, and placed the one above the other, according to the disposition of the ground. The part which is elevated on the outside, is levelled at the top like a terrace, by means of a mixture of lime and pumice-stone sifted: such are *APANOMERIA*, *SCAURO*, *MEREVELLI*, *PHIRO*, *STEPHANI*, and *PIHRA*. The poorest villages inland, such as *VOURVOULO*, *CONDO-CHORI*, and *MESSARIA*, situated on a declivity, are nothing more than an assemblage of caverns made in the pumice-stone. There is only a small portion of the front of each habitation that is a little walled up, on account of the entrance-door. *PIRGOS* is the most considerable, the best built, and the richest village of the island. There you breathe a pure air, and enjoy an agreeable prospect. Almost all the houses of *SANTORIN* have a cistern, which the inhabitants take care to fill in the rainy season: they have no other water to drink and to give to their cattle.

The partridge and the hare, so common in most of the islands of the *ARCHIPELAGO*, are very scarce at *SANTORIN*. The rabbit which we saw at *TENEDOS*, at *MYCONI*, at *DELOS*, at *PAROS*, at *SCIO*, and elsewhere, is not here to be found; but, to make amends, the quail is in plenty from the end of *Fruftidor*. The inhabitants pursue it by means of a net fixed to a hoop of three or four feet in diameter, to which is adapted a stick seven or eight feet long. The sportsman casts his net on a stump of the vine, or of the cotton-tree, where he suspects that there is any quail squatted, and it happens rather frequently that he catches one. We saw several taken the following year, in *Fruftidor*, in less than a quarter of an hour.

As the inhabitants cannot consume all the quails which this kind of sport procures, they are in the habit of parboiling them, and preserving them

all the winter in vinegar, or in *vino santo*. This is a very delicate dish, which surpasses the fig-pecker of CYPRUS prepared in the same manner.

We saw in the same season the Alpine crow\*. We were told that it was a bird of passage, and that it came from the mountains of ASIA MINOR.

The road of SANTORIN is about seven miles in length from north to south, and six in breadth from the little harbour of PHIRA to the Island of ASPRONISI. It would be one of the best ports of the ARCHIPELAGO, if ships could cast anchor there; but the lead indicates a considerable depth of water, such as two hundred and fifty and three hundred fathoms. Boats anchor at SAN NICOLO: vessels make fast by mooring below PHIRA, when they come to load with wine. If bad weather oblige them to take shelter at SANTORIN, they generally make fast between the LITTLE and the NEW KAMMENI, till the squall be over. Frigates may cast anchor in fifteen or twenty fathoms water, over a gravelly bottom to the southward of the OLD KAMMENI, at the same time taking the precaution to run out immediately a hawser to the shore.

Some little distance to the south south-west of the LITTLE KAMMENI, the bottom of the sea rises, and the lead indicates no more than fifteen or twenty fathoms; but this bottom is of stone and rock, on which a ship cannot anchor. The fishermen belonging to the island affirm that it has risen considerably within a short time, which seems to announce the approaching formation of a new island.

We think that it would be imprudent to remain too long at anchor between the LITTLE and the NEW KAMMENI, on account of the vicinity

\* *Corvus pyrrhocorax*. LINN.—T.

of the latter, which exhales a very fetid smell, and must be extremely unwholesome; for, independently of the waters which stagnate there, the volcanic exhalations that proceed from this place and the environs, must infect the air to a rather great distance, and soon occasion dangerous disorders.

## CHAPTER XI.

*Arrival at Candia.—Description of that town.—Visit to the pacha.—Departure.—Arrival at Retimo.—Behaviour of the pacha.—Arrival at Canea.—Description of the environs.—Temperature.—Observations on the winds.—Earthquake.*

IMPATIENT to repair to the Isle of CRETE, and to see the country of JUPITER and of MINOS, we embarked on the 12th of Thermidor (30th of July), in the evening, in a large boat with lateen sails, which had arrived a few days before at Port SAN NICOLÒ. The captain, a Muffulman by religion, was a native of TUNIS. He often frequented the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and enjoyed a very good reputation. He had brought *mantegue*\* from the Gulf of SIDRA in AFRICA, and was going to CANDIA to take on board for EGYPT a cargo of raisins, almonds, ST. JOHN'S bread, liquorice-roots, and honey.

As the distance from SANTORIN to CANDIA is about thirty leagues, we should have preferred embarking on board a European vessel, rather than making this trip in one of the country-boats: but there was no choice left for us. Merchant-vessels frequent but little the harbour of SANTORIN in summer; and, in that season, the regularity of the wind allows of navigating, without fear and without danger, in small boats.

\* *Mantegue* is a mixture of butter and mutton-suet, of which the Orientals make use in their ragouts and pastry.

We set out from SANTORIN in the evening, in order to arrive in broad day at CANDIA. We left on the right the little Island of CHRISTIANA, and we steered, without compass, nearly towards the south. The north wind fell, as usual, after sunset: it was faint and variable during the night, and, in the morning, we found ourselves ten or twelve leagues from CANDIA, to the north-east of DIA. As we were too far to the eastward, and as the wind, which blew from eight o'clock in the morning, was north north-west, we plied to windward a part of the day, in order to pass to the westward of DIA; which was the reason that we did not enter the harbour till the evening of the 13th (31st of July).

We made the captain acknowledge that it is much better to consult a compass, as soon as one loses sight of the land, than the stars and the sun, which do not indicate the course with the same precision. Notwithstanding this avowal, he set sail for EGYPT a few days after, disdaining to purchase an excellent compass which a Ragusan mariner offered him at a low price, so much empire has habit over an ignorant man.

The first chain of Mount IDA, which rises in the form of a pyramid to the south-west of CANDIA, serves at a distance as a land-mark to navigators, who wish to anchor in the harbour of that town. The little Island of DIAS situated to the east north-east, known to mariners under the name of *STANDIA*\*, equally concurs to guide their route: it does more; it affords them an asylum in the three roadsteads which it has in its south quarter. We shall have occasion to speak of them elsewhere.

The harbour of CANDIA is defended from the north wind by rocks, on which has been built a strong jetty parallel to the coast; it is very safe, and

\* *Εἰς τὴν Δίαν*, is tin Dia.

might contain from thirty to forty merchant-vessels if it were dug and kept in order. It can at this day receive but eight or ten, and these too must be lightened or unloaded; for there are no more than eight or nine feet water in the inside of the harbour, and about fifteen at its entrance. The Turks, who enjoy every where with the indifference of a tenant; the Turks, who make every thing worse, and never any thing better, suffer it to be choked up from day to day without employing themselves on the means of clearing it; which would, nevertheless, be very easy, the bottom being of sand and mud.

In front of the jetty, to the left on entering, are arsenals which are allowed to fall into decay: these were constructed by the Venetians in 1552, to judge of them from that date put underneath the arms of the Republic. They suffered greatly at the time of the siege of this place by the Turks, in 1667, 1668, and 1669: some even have lost a great part of their roof. These arsenals, to the number of ten, are, properly speaking, nothing more than docks, which that industrious and trading people had constructed for building galleys, and for putting them under cover when they were laid up.

From the harbour the entrance into the town is by a gate, which is shut at night. Walls of a solid construction, a good ditch, and some advanced works, defend this place very well by land. The houses are better built than all those which we had hitherto seen, if we except Scio; but the population here is not in proportion to its extent. Here are scarcely reckoned ten or twelve thousand Turks, two or three thousand Greeks, and about sixty Jews. The Greeks who inhabited it, before it was subjected to the Turks, followed the Venetians at the time of the capitulation, or made their escape into the country. They come not at this day without trembling to settle in a town where their existence is incessantly threatened by the janizaries, and their fortune very frequently invaded by the pachas.

CANDIA is situated on a lawn of no great elevation. The ground, supported towards the sea by a strong wall built on rocks, affords an agreeable walk. Here are seen several pieces of cannon with the arms of VENICE, capable of defending by sea the approaches of the place. The seraglio of the pacha stands on the opposite side, and occupies the site on which was built the palace of the proveditor. The handsomest churches, damaged by the siege, have been repaired and converted into mosques. The houses constructed by the Venetians have disappeared for a long time; but the fortifications have been carefully kept up, so much importance does the PORTE annex to the preservation of the island.

We shall not undertake to decide whether CANDIA occupies the position of the ancient CYTÆUM, as some geographers appear to believe, or that of MATIUM, as some others suppose: we shall only say, from the places which we attentively visited in a second voyage, that it appears to us more proper to consider the ruins of a town, situated four leagues to the west, as those of CYTÆUM. We shall place MATIUM two leagues to the east of CANDIA, facing DIA, as PLINY calls it. HERACLEA, which is known to have been the harbour of CNOSSUS, still exists four or five leagues to the eastward. That of CANDIA, the best on the whole coast, appears to us, in this supposition, to be Port PANORMUS, situated, according to PTOLEMY, between CYTÆUM and HERACLEA.

The name of CANDIA, which this town bears at the present day, comes from the Saracen word *chandax* or *candax*, which signifies entrenchment, because it was in this place that the Saracens entrenched themselves when they came to make the conquest of the island, under the emperor MICHAEL I. surnamed the Stammerer.

In 1645, the Turks got possession of CANEA, RETIMO, and all the Island of CRETE; but they were unable to make themselves masters of the forts of GRABUSA, SUDA, SPINA-LONGA, and the town of CANDIA. MAHOMET IV. who was sensible that he should never be the quiet possessor of this important island, as long as the Venetians should occupy the capital, in 1667, sent his visir ACHMET KUPERLI with a considerable army in order to lay siege to it. The Venetians, still masters of the harbour and of the sea, preserved the power of transmitting succours of every kind; and the place, well fortified and vigorously defended, was capable of resisting for a long time all the efforts of the Ottoman Empire.

The army of the besiegers had been several times reinforced: already were reckoned upwards of one hundred thousand Turks who had perished at the foot of the walls by the fire of the place, or by the explosion of mines. The Venetians received fresh succour from FRANCE, which would, undoubtedly, have obliged the Turks to retire, when the town, under the command of MOROSINI, capitulated through the artifice of a Greek in the service of the PORTE, after a siege of two years and a half, and the loss of thirty thousand men, Venetians, Piedmontese, and French.

When we arrived in CANDIA, the vice-consulate was vacant. We found only a simple agent, to whom we communicated the project which we had of visiting the east and middle part of the island before we repaired to RETIMO and CANEA. The drogueman, a Jew by birth, more officious than we could have wished, came to recommend to us, the day after our arrival, to wait on the pacha, in order to discharge, he said, a duty, and to yield to the wish which this respectable old man had to see us, and to consult us respecting his health. "You will obtain from him," added he, "all the accommodation that you can desire for visiting the island without any danger."

Our first movement was to refuse to go to the pacha's, of whom we had nothing to ask. "What purpose can this visit answer?" said we to the drogueman. "It is at least useless. Shew him our firmans, tell him who we are, and what we are come here to do: tell him, besides, that we do not practise physic, although we gather plants; and give him to understand, that it is very frequently dangerous for a person to consult physicians when he is in good health." The drogueman persisted: he told us that we could not proceed one step in the island if we did not accede to the wishes of the pacha. The agent was of his opinion: some captains of vessels, present at our conversation, applauded this proposal: curiosity pleaded also in favour of the drogueman: we consented; and, in the afternoon, we were conducted to the seraglio.

We were first received in the apartments of the principal officers, who spoke to us with eagerness of the French revolution, and of the war which we then had to sustain against the natural enemies of the PORTE. We replied to all their questions with reserve: this subject was too delicate to be treated of in TURKEY. We were offered pipes, coffee, sherbet, and perfumes, after which it was announced to us that the pacha was ready to receive us.

We had found nothing but sofas in the apartment of the officers; we saw two chairs in that of the pacha, placed at a little distance from him. On entering, we made him our salutation in the oriental style, which he returned\*. He invited us to sit down: the drogueman and the agent's son squatted on a carpet. After the customary compliments on our safe arrival,

\* It consists in carrying the right hand to the heart, and inclining the head a little. The Turks pronounce between themselves their *salam alaik*, *salam alaik-kom*, which they take good care not to say to a non-Muſſulman.

the pacha spoke to us of his health, and begged us to feel his pulse. He was a good-looking old man, upwards of seventy years of age. We complied with his request; we told him that he was in good health, and that he had still upwards of twenty years to live. He appeared satisfied with this prediction.

He afterwards asked us what was the object of our travels. "Curiosity and the desire of acquiring knowledge," answered we, "bring us into your island. We have passed some months at CONSTANTINOPLE; we have visited most of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO; we would wish to take a look at the celebrated country which you govern, and gather some of those balsamic plants which Heaven has here scattered with profusion."—"That cannot be," said he to us coldly: "I cannot give you such a permission." We shewed him our firmans, by which we had the power of visiting all the countries subject to the Ottoman government. "That cannot be," continued the pacha. We instanced several travellers; we spoke of seamen, who walk about the island with the greatest freedom, who go a shooting, and wherever they please. The pacha still repeated: "That cannot be: your life would be exposed: to this I cannot consent."

He talked to us of gangs of thieves and robbers who infested the roads, and who would murder us if we were to go to Mount IDA and to GORTYNA, as we wanted. "That cannot be," said we in our turn: "there are no gangs of thieves and robbers in a country well governed: punishment would follow too close on guilt, for villains to dare to make their appearance."—"No doubt," said the pacha to us: "there are much fewer robbers since I command; but there are still enough for you to be exposed to lose your lives." We desired the drogouman to cut short a conversation which might become disagreeable to all, and to obtain permission for us to retire; which was granted.

We were very much astonished at this strictness of the pacha, and were endeavouring to divine the cause of it, when a word from the drogue-man afforded us a ray of light. "The pacha," said he to us, "made a difficulty in granting you what you asked him, only because there passed not long ago a foreigner, who gave him five hundred piaſtres for going to see I forget what ruins ten leagues from this place."—"Very well," replied we; "tell the pacha that we will not purchase at so dear a rate the sight of some heaps of stones, and that he may commit extortions on the Greeks and Jews if he is in want of money: as for us, we have not five hundred piaſtres, and if we had, we would find means to employ them to a better purpose." The drogue-man endeavoured to get us to consent to some smaller sacrifice. "Not a piaſtre, not a parat," said we; "besides, it should not be through your means that we would treat, if we should entertain such a wish."

It was useless, in the present circumstances, to make a longer stay in CANDIA. We resolved to go, if possible, by land to CANEA, persuaded that we should find from the consul every accommodation of which we stood in need. We asked for a janizary to accompany us; the aga sent us a man well known, who had been settled in the town for a long time: a Turkish muleteer, himself a janizary, furnished us with horses, and served us as a guide. We knew that there was nothing to fear from the Greeks, and two janizaries settled and married, who publicly undertook to conduct us to CANEA, were a sufficient security to us. We tranquillized the French ship-captains, who expressed uneasiness on our account. We sent our baggage by sea with a Greek servant, and set out by ourselves, and without baggage, on the 17th of Thermidor (4th of August) in the morning.

These janizaries, born in the island, spoke Greek very well, and drank wine and brandy still better. We were extremely well satisfied with them; and we learnt, even from their mouth, that the pacha had spoken to us

of robbers only in order to get money, and have a pretext for giving us, at our own expense, an escort on which he would have levied his claims. I should have suppressed this anecdote, which is of little importance, had I not thought that it may be useful to travellers, and did it not shew, at the same time, how greedily the agents of the Turkish government are after money, and what little delicacy they use as to the means of procuring it.

The environs of CANDIA present a few fertile plains, cultivated, and some rising grounds susceptible of being so. At a little distance to the south, is seen an insulated mountain, in the form of a pyramid, at the foot of which one passes in going to visit the ruins of GORTYNA: the Europeans know it by the name of JUPITER'S mountain. To the south-west, Mount IDA, covered with snow almost all the year, throws out, on one side, some branches towards the town; and, on the other, runs to join the mountains of SPHACHIA, in like manner covered with snow during eight or nine months.

On going out of the town, we found a low plain, somewhat extensive, watered by two rivulets, after which we crossed calcareous hills and mountains, on which the Venetians have made paved roads, that have been kept in tolerably good preservation. We left the first links of the chain of Mount IDA very close to us on the left. We saw every where, in abundance, storax among the plants and shrubs which we had met with in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. We arrived at an early hour at DAMASTA, a village by no means considerable, where we passed the rest of the day. We were made to set off in the morning before day-light. We traversed places less elevated, less arid, and more cultivated than those we had passed the day before; fertile plains of little extent and narrow vallies. We saw a great many olive-trees, a few vines, a few mulberry-trees, and several oaks. We rested under the plane-tree mentioned by *TOURNEFORT*, near a considerable spring

spring which takes its rise at too small a distance from the sea to serve for the watering of the lands. We proceeded for a long time by the sea-side, and we arrived at an early hour at RETIMO.

The environs of this town afford prospects very picturesque: gardens planted with orange-trees, among which rise some date-trees; fields covered with olive-trees and kitchen-garden plants; rising grounds on which the vine, the fig-tree, the mulberry-tree, and the almond-tree grow together; further on, wooded mountains: to the west, the citadel, the harbour, and the sea—every thing concurs to render RETIMO the most agreeable town in the island. It would have become, perhaps, the richest and most populous, if the harbour, small as it is, had been kept in order. Its present population consists of from five to six thousand inhabitants, half Greeks, half Turks; the Jews there are not so numerous as at CANDIA.

RETIMO, built on the ruins of the ancient RITHYMNA, too weakly defended, was plundered and ravaged by the Turks as far back as the year 1572, while SELIM II. was causing the siege of FAMAGUSTA in CYPRUS to be pushed on with vigour: but it was not till the reign of IBRAHIM, in 1645, that the Venetians were driven from it for ever.

Though we had alighted with our guides at a caravanfary, we willingly accepted a lodging that was offered to us at the house of a Jew, a French *barataire*. In the course of the evening his son took us all over the town, shewed us the harbour and some gardens, and related to us the deplorable event which had obliged his father to absent himself.

The pacha of RETIMO, who from a low condition had just risen to great employments by dint of intrigues and money, eager to recover his advances, pay his debts, and acquire fresh riches in order to obtain, with a superior  
rank,

rank, a government more important, suffered no opportunity to escape of extorting money from the inhabitants of RETIMO and the unfortunate cultivators of his province; and when occasions and pretexts were wanting, he taxed just in the same manner, at sums more or less great, the private persons suspected to be rich. For six months past that he had been in the town, Greeks, Jews, and Mussulmans, all had paid more or less. ABRAHAMAKI, *barataire* and agent of the Republic, had flattered himself that the pacha would not dare to apply to him; he was mistaken. ABRAHAMAKI was reckoned rich: the pacha could not find it in his heart to suffer this prey to escape. He sent to him for ten thousand piastras, at the same time assuring him of his protection if he paid them instantly. The Jew refused to part with that sum. The pacha insisted and threatened. ABRAHAMAKI then addressed himself to the French consul at CANEA (Citizen HENRY MURE), and communicated to him the situation in which he stood. The consul immediately went to RETIMO. The pacha, who was informed of the circumstance, caused the Jew to be seized, ordered him to be put in irons in the seraglio, and threatened to have him cudgelled to death if he did not pay down instantly the sum required.

What could the consul do in this extremity? Wait on the pacha, claim his justice, demand the execution of the capitulations: the Jew would not, on that account, the less perish. Every one acknowledged that the pacha was capable of this atrocity. The family of ABRAHAMAKI assembled; all the Jews of RETIMO made a stir: they deliberated: every one was of opinion to pay. The prisoner himself, fearing for his life, wrote to his friends, begged them to count the sum which the pacha required, and send word to the consul to undertake nothing in his favour. The money being paid, the Jew was released; but the pacha once more threatened to have him cudgelled to death if he uttered the smallest complaint.

This abuse of authority could not be tolerated without great inconveniences. The pacha had dared to make an attack on the fortune and liberty of an agent of the Republic; he ought to be punished. To say nothing, was an act of cowardice; this was in some measure to authorize this wicked man to commit every day fresh acts of tyranny. Shortly no ship-captain would have dared either to take in oil at RETIMO, or to land on these parts become too dangerous. We learnt, a few days after, that the consul had sent word to the agent to conceal himself from the resentment of the pacha, and that he had written to Citizen DESCORCHES, envoy extraordinary at the Ottoman Porte, in order to communicate to him what had just happened.

The complaint of the consul was supported by those which were preferred at the same time by the pacha of CANDIA, on account of other extortions of a nature no less flagrant. The PORTE, which tacitly allows its agents to squeeze and torment tributary subjects, cannot without danger suffer the Mussulmans, and still less persons under the immediate protection of foreign powers to be laid under too severe a contribution. The pacha of RETIMO, on the request of Citizen DESCORCHES and of the pacha of CONSTANTINOPLE, was displaced, and condemned to make restitution of the sums extorted. He obeyed the first part of the orders of the PORTE; but he declared to the *chiaoux* who came to intimate them to him, that no fear, no motive could determine him to reimburse the money which he had exacted.

We saw him arrive a few days after us, at CANEA: he was saluted by the guns of the fort, and received a visit from the agas and the principal inhabitants of the town. He himself paid a visit to the pacha of CANEA, and hastened his departure for the MOREA, whither he was going to wait the effect of his new intrigues at CONSTANTINOPLE.

In the mean time all those who had money to claim, and who were specially designated in the firman of the **PORTE**, presented themselves, either to the pacha of **CANDIA**, or to that of **CANEA**, in order to be reimbursed before the departure of their plunderer. It is probable that these two pachas affected to endeavour to determine the pacha of **RETIMO** to make the restitution ordered by the **PORTE**, since he said loudly that if the smallest violence were attempted against him, he would put himself at the head of his people and repel force by force. It was in vain that the obedience which he owed to the orders of the sultan was represented to him: he did not the less persist in declaring that the sight even of the instruments of punishment could not determine him to it, and that no authority could compel him. He therefore departed without any one daring to undertake any thing against him. He received the civilities of the pacha of **CANEA**, and was again saluted by the guns of the fort, as if he had not been a rebellious subject, and as if he had carried with him the regret of the inhabitants.

We are ignorant of the sequel of this business; but it is probable that by means of the money which he had extorted, money which his agents at **CONSTANTINOPLE** will have skilfully scattered among personages of influence, not only this man, doubly culpable, will not have been punished, but he will even have obtained a place more honourable and more lucrative than the former.

The next day, the 19th of Thermidor, (6th of August) we set out at sunrise, at the same time expressing our wishes that the Turks who outrage humanity, who oppress in a revolting manner the nations that they have conquered and stripped, may be one day forced to return to the wild and distant countries whence they would never have issued, perhaps, if the Greeks had known how to preserve the virtues of their ancestors.

For a long while we contemplated, to the north-west of the town, the citadel built on a mass of steep rocks, advanced into the sea. We proceeded for some time along a hilly and difficult road, and we arrived at the shore of ARMIRO, after having crossed a small river which runs at the foot of the mountain. Beyond the beach we saw two fine springs, the one of salt-water; the other, more considerable, of fresh: farther on, stands the fort of ARMIRO, built by the Venetians, for defending a gorge, and preventing pirates or enemies who might make a descent on the beach, from being able to penetrate by that way into the interior of the country.

We then rose higher by degrees, and we found ourselves at the foot of the mountain called MALAXA (*Μαλαξα*), in sight of the Gulf of SUDA. This mountain is schistose and granitical at its base; whereas all those which we had seen till then, had appeared to us calcareous, and for the most part cretaceous.

Ranging along the mountain, whose direction is from east to west, we passed, without suspecting it, within reach of the ruins of AMPHIMALE, of which we shall soon have occasion to speak.

We descended by a paved road into a fertile plain, tolerably well cultivated. We passed at a little distance from the Gulf of SUDA, and arrived early at CANEA, much less tired by the length of the route, than fatigued by the excessive heat which we had experienced.

Citizen MURE, who had been a long time expecting us, would not allow us to lodge at the convent of the Capuchins, on account of the indecorous behaviour in which an Italian monk, to whom the house was intrusted, indulged himself towards the French. We here thank him for his attention on this subject, for the civilities which we received at his house,

## TRAVELS IN THE

and for the valuable information which he gave us. We are likewise indebted to Citizen MAGALON, a merchant, for interesting details respecting the productions of the island, the trade that is there carried on, the population of the country-places, and some customs which are there established.

CANEA, much less extensive than CANDIA, is in proportion more populous. Here are reckoned upwards of four thousand Turks, two or three thousand Greeks, a hundred and fifty Jews, four French houses, and some Italian houses; the latter are under the protection of the emperor of GERMANY, or the Republic of RAGUSA.

The town is surrounded by a strong wall and a wide ditch: it has but one gate on the land side. The harbour is defended by batteries in good condition. To the left, on entering, is remarked a jetty parallel to the coast, behind which a somewhat great number of vessels might anchor if the bottom were cleaned. The largest are obliged to remain near the entrance of the harbour, exposed to the waves of a rough sea when the northerly winds blow with a little violence.

Facing the jetty is seen, as at CANDIA, a range of roofed docks, which the Venetians had constructed for building and sheltering their gallees.

CANEA scarcely held out for a few days against the Turks, who came to attack it in 1645. CORNARO, who commanded the Venetian troops, came out of it with arms and baggage in order to retire to RETIMO, where he was killed a little time after, in wishing to defend that town, much less important and much less capable of resistance than CANEA.

The nearest mountains, parallel to the coast, leave between them a plain upwards of a league in width, which extends over a space of twelve or fifteen miles,

miles, from the head of the Gulf of SUDA to the environs of DICTYMNA, a mountain that stretches to the north, and forms the advanced promontory which formerly bore the same name, and which the Italians designate at this day under that of *CARO SPADA*. This plain is, in general, tolerably fertile and almost entirely cultivated. Gardens of orange-trees, forests of olive-trees, a few scattered vineyards, fields destined for the culture of wheat, barley, cotton, sesamum, maize, melons, and different legumes, those are what it presents every where.

Following the sea-shore to the west of the town, you cross a tiny rivulet; then you see near the coast a shoal and the little desert island of SAN THEODORO, on which the Venetians had erected a battery for preventing a descent on the beach. When you have passed the island, you arrive at PLATANIA, an extensive, solitary, and rural walk, where grow spontaneously plane-trees which excite astonishment from their size and number. Each of them supports one or two vine-plants, which embrace the whole extent of the tree, and furnish in abundance, without care and without culture, grapes with large stones, of an excellent quality. As they ripen very late in these shaded places, they are seen to arrive with pleasure at the markets of CANEA, when the others are beginning to disappear. A small river waters and traverses this agreeable forest, and there diffuses life and coolness.

We had been for a long time at CANEA: we had already visited the environs of the town, and gathered on the mountains the dittany and the ebony of CRETE, and most of the interesting plants of the island: we had been present at village-festivals, when it was proposed to us to go and see the ruins of PALEO-CASTRO, which we suspect to be those of *ASPORA*, according to the account of some travellers.

After a journey of an hour and a half, we arrived at the Greek monastery, *AYIA KIRIAKI*, situated to the south-west of CANEA. We there left our horses, and took a guide to conduct us to the ruins which we wished to examine. We ascended by a very bad road, over a steep ~~rock~~, making part of the first chain of mountains which we have ~~said to be~~ parallel to the coast. We soon came to a thick wall that led us to a ~~lawn on which~~ we remarked the remains of a fort almost square, flanked by towers. The walls of this fort, as well as those of the ramparts with which the town was surrounded, are nearly a toise in thickness. They were of a solid construction, and faced with heavy stone, which, in some places, is still to be perceived.

We came out from this enclosure by the south wall, and found ourselves on a ground commanded by a chain of rocks more lofty and more steep than those on which the fort was situated. This space is terminated to the west by other perpendicular rocks, which form a natural rampart around it, separating it from the surrounding mountains, and rendering it inaccessible on that side.

This rock was itself surmounted by a thick wall, and strengthened by towers at certain distances. The town was situated between the fortress and the wall, by which we arrived, and the perpendicular rocks which we have just mentioned. This space was sufficient for a town of moderate size. Here we neither found inscriptions nor bas-reliefs, nor vestiges of temples or sumptuous edifices, nothing that could indicate to us the ancient name of this town.

If KISSAMOS situated between Cape GRABUSA and Cape SPADA, twenty miles to the west of CANEA were formerly the harbour of APTERA, as appears evident, according to the text of the ancient authors, and if CANEA occupy

occupy the place of CYDONIA, as is commonly imagined, STRABO is mistaken when he says that APTERA was but ten miles from CYDONIA. But if ancient CYDONIA were forty stada from its harbour, as is thought by the author of the *Legislation de Crete*, page 473, then it is probable that we saw the ruins of that town, and that those of APTERA are ten miles to the west, facing KISSAMOS, as STRABO says: they are those which TOURNEFORT visited, and of which he speaks.

A quarter of a league to the east of CANEA, is seen a rising ground, and, farther on, some calcareous hills, the greater part naked, which advance into the sea, and form a peninsula terminated by Cape MELECCA. The monastery of the TRINITY lies among these hills: it is inhabited by a great number of friars, who almost all apply themselves to the culture of the land. We remarked with pleasure in the environs of the monastery, some superb orchards of olive-trees, a few vineyards, and some fields, intended for the culture of different species of corn. We saw a great many bees, and a vast number of goats and sheep: there were among others in the garden a ricinus or *Palma Christi* planted several years ago, which indicated by its vigour that the greater part of the plants of the warmest climates might be introduced into CRETE. We spent some days with these friars, and we went from this place to the monastery of ST. JOHN, situated towards the cape, on an elevated lawn. The friars are here not so numerous, because the lands which they have to cultivate are not so good nor so extensive as those belonging to the convent of the TRINITY.

We descended from Cape MELECCA by a narrow gorge and by a road made between frightful precipices, which furnished us with some interesting plants. Towards the middle of the declivity, stands a building partly de-

stroyed, depending on the monastery of ST. JOHN, formerly inhabited by a few friars to whom the guard of this gorge was intrusted.

The Gulf of SUDA (*PLATE VIII*), a spacious natural harbour, one of the finest and safest of the ARCHIPELAGO, lies to the south of the peninsula of which we have just spoken. Its mouth is to the east, and its head runs to the west north-west: it is not only sheltered by the angles and capes which the lands form, but also by the two Islets of SUDA, on one of which is situated the fort constructed by the Venetians, and which they preserved a great while after the island was no longer in their possession. It was not till the reign of ACHMET III. that the Turks made themselves masters of this fort, and by those means became the tranquil possessors of the whole Island of CRETE.

The anchorage the most frequented by the commanders of vessels who wish only to shelter themselves from a gale of wind, is to the south south-west of Cape MELECCA, behind a small island, known to mariners under the name of OLD SUDA. Large ships of war anchor at all places, either at the entrance of the gulf, or by the side of the island which we have just mentioned. Both of them go to the head of the gulf only when they are to remain a long time at the anchorage. The boats belonging to the country sometimes cast anchor between the two Islands of SUDA.

Half a league from the sea, to the south of this gulf, are to be met with on an elevated ground the ruins of AMPHIMALE. All the walls of this town, though in a great measure destroyed, may be easily traced; every where are seen in their enclosure, rubbish and heaps of stones formed by cultivators. Two ~~well~~ cisterns rise above these ruins, and leave people to divine how they could be filled. They are distinguishable from the red cement with which they are faced internally, and above all from the mark which

the waters have there left. One part of the town was on a plain, the other followed the slope of the ground inclined towards the sea. We remarked in the east part, the remains of the gates of the town. We in vain looked for marbles, inscriptions, and bas-reliefs; every thing has disappeared or served for the construction of a Greek monastery which has been erected on these ruins, and in which we were happy to pass the night.

From the time of our arrival in CRETE till the approaches of the autumnal equinox, REAUMUR's thermometer, with spirits of wine, was constantly during the day, at 25, 26, and seldom at 27 degrees, in a room with a north-east aspect. We had at most had 25 degrees at SANTORIN and at MILO; 22, and 23 at NAXIA. True it is that the season was somewhat less advanced when we visited those islands.

During the three summer months, the excessive heat of the sun is constantly tempered every day;—from eight or nine o'clock in the morning till the evening, by the rather rapid current of air which prevails from north to south in the Islands of the ARCHIPELAGO and on the northern coast of CRETE. This refreshing wind, called *embat*, takes its course and is modified throughout the LEVANT, according to the direction of the coasts and the extent of sea which lies before them. We shall remark, by the way, that it is south-west on the southern coast of CRETE, of CYPRUS, and of CARAMANIA; nearly north-west at SMYRNA and ALEXANDRIA; west at TYRE, SIDON, and on all the coast of SYRIA. It comes to ATHENS, from the west or from the Gulf of LEPANTE; and this it is which the Greeks designated under the name of Zephyr. During the night, the wind takes a contrary direction; it comes from the land to the sea; it is more faint than during the day, and never extends beyond three or four leagues.

The winds are variable in the other seasons, especially towards the equinoxes: at the end of Fructidor, we experienced, with a southerly wind which lasted two days, a heat of from 30 to 32 degrees. The horizon was then as if charged with smoke, and the rays of the sun were reddish and faint, as is remarked in EGYPT, when the same wind is felt. Citizen PEYRON, a ship-captain, told us that being at anchor at SUDA, on the 30th of May, 1793, the heat became so considerable from eight to eleven o'clock at night, during a gale of wind from the south, that people could scarcely breathe, and every one felt a general faintness. The iron guns of his ship had contracted so violent a degree of heat, that a person could not lean his hand on them without being forced to withdraw it immediately. This fact was certified to us by Citizen MURE and the other Frenchmen settled at CANEA. It is to be regretted that no one ascertained, by means of the thermometer, the true degree of heat which prevailed during this memorable evening.

Though the cold is sharply felt in winter, on IDA and on the summit of the WHITE MOUNTAINS, and though they are covered with snow as early as the end of Brumaire, the temperature is, nevertheless, very mild in the plains and towards the coasts. There it does not freeze: there the rains are frequent, but of short duration. The sun appears almost immediately after the rain, and the sky is frequently clear and serene. In summer it never rains, either in CRETE, or in the Islands of the ÆGEAN SEA. The dew is then sufficient for the support of the vegetation of the plants which grow spontaneously in these climates. Almost all the others must be watered, if it be wished to cultivate them with any success.

It has been remarked at CANEA, that when the wind is to the northward or to the eastward, the waters of the sea are very low, and that they are, on the contrary, high, when the wind blows from the western quarter, or even when

when it is in that direction in the offing, although it may not yet have reached the island. The difference which we ourselves observed on the level of the waters during the stay that we made in CRETE, is about two feet. In the summer, the waters are, in the harbour, eight or ten inches below the top of a rock situated opposite to the windows of the consul's house: they rise eight or ten inches above this rock when the wind shifts to the west. Citizen MURE even assured us that in violent westerly gales, the level of the waters rose always seven or eight inches higher, so as to cover other rocks situated opposite to the angle of the house which Citizen MAGALON, a merchant, occupies towards the entrance of the harbour.

This difference in the level of the waters has nothing to do with the flux and reflux which is observed in some parts of the MEDITERRANEAN. It proceeds only from the strength of the wind, which, in the former case, impels the waters from the coasts towards the open sea, and, in the latter, brings them from the open sea towards the coasts. At CANEA, the south wind produces no very perceptible difference, while it raises, in a very remarkable manner, the waters in all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and on all the coasts of the ÆGEAN SEA.

On the 7th of Brumaire (28th of October) at five o'clock in the morning, we felt at CANEA, an earthquake the shocks of which, though of no great violence, lasted some seconds: it was calm at this moment, but shortly after the westerly wind blew with impetuosity for several days. The inhabitants told us that earthquakes are not uncommon among them; and if we consult history, we see that this island has experienced very terrible ones at different periods. The most remarkable is that which took place in 1490: it extended over the whole island, from east to west, and occasioned very considerable damage.

## CHAPTER XII.

*Division of the island.—Of the agas.—Of their rights on the lands.—Of the police which they exercise.—Reflections on this subject.—Of the nations which have succeeded each other in Crete.—Of the Abadiots.—Of the Sphachiots.—Historical summary respecting Lambro Canziani.*

THE Island of CRETE is divided into three pachaliks or governments, the chief places of which are CANDIA, CANEA, and RETIMO. In the first of these towns is a pacha with three tails, *seraskier*, or general in chief of all the forces of the island. In the other two, is a pacha with two tails, independent of that of CANDIA, as to the administrative part and the police, but subject to him in every thing that concerns the military department. All three, in their turn and in their provinces, are to superintend the collection of the impost, and the safety of the places which are intrusted to them. They are also bound to cause justice to be done by the cadis, and to order their sentences to be executed, as we have said elsewhere.

The pachaliks are divided into a certain number of districts, and each district comprises, in its extent, a certain number of villages, some of which belong to the imperial mosques, some to the sultana-mother; and the greater number, under the name of *MALIKIANE-AGASSI*, are granted for life to agas or lords, in consideration of a sum of money, more or less great, paid into the imperial treasury before the firman of investiture, and an annual quit-rent, which is carried into the coffers of the treasurer of CANDIA, for the maintenance of the fortresses and the pay of the troops of the country.

All land-owners, Greeks or Mussulmans, pay to the *aga*, to the *mesque*, or to the *sultan*, a seventh of the produce of their lands. They are also obliged to carry their olives to the mills which the *agas* alone have a right to cause to be constructed. Oil pays a seventh; and, what becomes a very important object to the lord, the *crusts*\*, or miry waters, which remain as an indemnification for the workmen whom he places at the mill for the extraction of the oil, and for the horses that he furnishes for the pressing of the olives.

The police of the village belongs to the *aga*: for this purpose he appoints a *soubachi*, a *Mussulman* like himself, a subaltern tyrant, always more greedy, more untractable, than his master. Being an informer of every thing he sees, of every thing he hears, a troublesome inquisitor into the fortune of all, incessantly occupied in setting the inhabitants at variance, in fomenting hatred among them, the *soubachi* is the most mischievous being that Turkish policy has created for the misfortune of the Greeks. The *aga* makes use of him for punishing the smallest faults, real or supposed, by arbitrary fines, by imprisonment, and not unfrequently even by the *bastinado*.

The Greeks appoint among themselves a *capitan*, or primate, charged to conciliate people's minds, and to terminate in an amicable manner the differences which may arise among them. He is a justice of peace, to whose opinion the wisest always submit, in order to avoid the formidable claw of the *cadi*, to whose tribunal all litigious affairs are carried as a last resort. The primate also watches over the interest of all. To him it is

\* *Crusts* or lees. From these a rather considerable quantity of oil is drawn, as well as from the waters which have been poured boiling on the lees after the extraction of the virgin oil. These waters are received into large reservoirs: the oil which detaches itself from the lees, or thick part, rises by degrees to the surface of the water.

that the aga addresses himself when he has orders to give, or requests to make; when he requires labourers for the culture of his fields, or for works of public utility. The Greeks also appoint a *dascalos*, or writer, who keeps a register of the names of the inhabitants, of the sums at which they are taxed for their karatch, and of those which they are to pay the aga after each harvest.

No Greek can marry without the permission of the aga, a permission which he must purchase by a present, such as a sheep, a lamb, or a few fowls. If the fair one please the aga, he sometimes keeps her for himself, without any one daring to oppose it. The cudgel is always ready to strike the reluctant Greek; and woe be to the audacious man who should prefer a complaint to the pacha or to the PORTA! He would pay with his fortune, and frequently with his head, for such a step. The aga, in this case, marries, in the *kapin* manner, with the free consent, or what is understood to be such, of this woman. Ottoman manners oppose his living with her; and if she persisted in refusing to receive his hand, however powerful the aga might be, he would be obliged to desist from his pretensions. Not unfrequently, after having kept this Greek woman two or three years, he turns her off for another, and marries her to some Greek inhabitant of the village, who dares not refuse her. It is asserted, that it is uncommon for a Greek woman not to be flattered at sharing the bed of her lord, young or old, whatever may be the shame which the men attach to it, and the fate that she must experience sooner or later; so true it is that here, as elsewhere, authority is seductive, and vanity not to be resisted.

Married men are not permitted to quit the island, unless they are mariners, or merchants. There has been seen hanging to the mast of his boat a *karavokéri*\*, who had dared to infringe this law, and who had, by stealth,

\* Master or captain of a bark, boat, or vessel.

carried unhappy beings to the Gulf of **EPHESUS**. Bachelors are, nevertheless, permitted to go and work in the **MOREA** and elsewhere; but a tax of sixty parats or two piastras a head is required of them before their departure.

If a murder happen in the village, or on its territory, and the delinquent be not known, the aga must pay to the pacha a sum of money, which he levies on all the inhabitants. He retains a part for himself: this is the custom in **TURKEY**; never does money pass through the hands of a man without his keeping a portion of it. Taxes here are always arbitrary, and more or less heavy, according to the population and the circumstances of the inhabitants. If it be a **Musliman** who has been found dead, the sum demanded is exorbitant, because religion has been outraged in one of its members. Such an assassination, besides, is almost always followed by the death of several Greeks. The relations and friends of the deceased think it their duty, and that their honour is interested, to assassinate, in their turn, the first inhabitants that happen to fall in their way; and though the law does not authorize them to do this, and ought even to punish them, they are almost always absolved by popular opinion.

If a Greek have committed a serious offence, or if he be accused of any, which amounts nearly to the same thing, the pacha intervenes, and demands the delinquent, in order to have him tried and condemned. For this purpose he must apply to the aga, who gives him up immediately, or defends him till after the sentence of the *cadi*. The Greek often gets out of a scrape, by means of the arrangements which he enters into with his aga, and of the sacrifices which he makes towards him and the pacha. He who has nothing, pays with his head; he who possesses something, is incessantly exposed to lose it, as has been shewn: this depends on the will of the pacha, and frequently too on that of the *soubachi*.

With all the means which the law of the strongest has put into the hands of the aga, it may well be suspected that he never fails to abuse them, and to squeeze as much as he can the unfortunate cultivators. For instance, he purchases, at a low price, their commodities (with the exception of wine), which he generally does not pay for till after he has sold them, and derived from them considerable profit.

All that I have just said is applicable only to the Greek villages subject to the agas. Those which belong to mosques, or to the sultana-mother, are somewhat less oppressed than the others, because the cultivators may have their complaints heard by the sultan or the inspectors of the mosques, who are interested in protecting them against the agents that they employ for the recovery of their rights. The Turkish villages, like those of the Greeks, are subject to the police of the aga. Owners of estates pay in the same manner; but they are all exempt from gratuitous labour, and the aga would soon be displaced and punished, if all the inhabitants preferred at once their complaints to the pacha, or to the Porte, against any injustice of too revolting a nature.

It is unnecessary to repeat here that the Greeks can neither occupy employments emanating from the government, nor can be admitted into any corps of troops, unless they have embraced the religion of *ΜΑΗΟΜΕΤ*.

Thus it is that the island, which so long prospered under the laws of *ΜΙΝΟΣ*, is at this day governed; thus it is that the inhabitants of a country, where liberty in a manner took birth, are bent under the yoke of the most shameful slavery, notwithstanding the sea which surrounds them, and the mountains by which they are defended.

Subject to the laws which a virtuous king had presented to them in the name of the Divinity, who undoubtedly inspired him, the Cretans were wise and happy; they were so when, satisfied with necessities, they solely sought their subsistence in the bosom of the earth which they themselves cultivated, and in the produce of the flocks that they reared on the mountains with which the island is covered.

When they wished to procure themselves superfluities; when they modified or changed the laws of their legislator; when every city wished to form an independent state; when the rich, a long time at variance with the poor, succeeded in getting possession of power, then the citizens destined to defend the country were distinguished from those who were to feed it; then the fields were no longer cultivated but by the hand of slaves; private education and public institutions all still tended, indeed, to render man robust and skilful, courageous, and intrepid; but morals were relaxed, the public mind was enervated, and the authority of the laws was frequently called in question. The Cretans, become restless and turbulent, ambitious and covetous, waged unjust wars, plundered their neighbours, and destroyed each other. Presently, the field of their robbery being no longer sufficiently extensive, they infested the seas with their vessels, disturbed the tranquillity of the nations of the ARCHIPELAGO, and molested their commerce: they were on the point of destroying it, had not the Rhodians armed themselves in defence of all, and succeeded in burning, sinking, or dispersing, for some time, the fleets of these pirates.

From that period it was no longer the love of liberty that still upheld for a few moments the degenerated Cretans; it was the love of independence, it was a remnant of their ancient valour, it was the courage and virtue of their ancestors, that still guided them in battle. They for a long time resisted the Romans, already masters of a part of the world; they even

even beat them sometimes, but were obliged to yield to the talents and fortune of METELIUS; they lost their fleets, and found themselves forced to abandon their laws, and receive those of the conquerors.

When, under the emperors of the EAST, christianity was introduced into this island, liberty for a considerable time had no longer existed: the courage of the inhabitants, enfeebled by a foreign yoke, became daily more enervated under a mild and comforting religion, which preached obedience, humility, and a contempt for the blessings of this world. Accordingly, the Saracens, led on by the love of conquest and the wish of propagating their creed, had only to make their appearance in 823 in order to become masters of the island, and to establish themselves there, in spite of the efforts of MICHAEL II. emperor of CONSTANTINOPLE. NICEPHORUS PHOCAS, as intrepid a warrior as an unskilful sovereign, drove the Saracens from CRETE in 961, and re-united that island to the empire of the EAST, of which it formed a part till the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE by the crusaders, in 1204. The Marquis DE MONTFERRAT sold it in, 1211, to the Venetians, who were already established in some islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and the latter preserved it till they were driven from it by the Turks.

Among the people who at this day inhabit the Island of CRETE, are to be remarked Abadiots, Mussulmans by religion, Arabs by origin, and remains of those Saracens of whom we have just spoken. Their countenance, different from that of the Turks, and the Arabic language which they speak among themselves, leave no doubt on this subject. Swarthy, meagre, and of middling stature, the Abadiots are mistrustful, malicious, and vindictive: they always go armed, like the Turks, and kill each other on the smallest provocation. They occupy twenty little villages to the south of Mount ADA, and form a population of about four thousand persons. They receive  
and

and give an asylum in their houses to the Turks and the Greeks who have committed any crimes; but they require them to remain quiet, and not to meddle in their affairs. If these malefactors become troublesome, if they give any cause of dissatisfaction, the Abadiots themselves kill them, in order to get rid of them; but, in no case, do they give them up to justice, by which they are claimed and pursued. Restrained by the Turks and the Greeks, and watched by their agas, the Abadiots dare not indulge themselves too openly in robbery. However, they sometimes make incursions into the Greek monasteries which lie within reach of their villages, and when they can, lay the friars under contribution.

It was they who, in 1772, plundered an English vessel, after having murdered her crew. The captain, having kept the sea for a long time, wished to approach the south coast of the island, in order to look for an anchorage, and renew his stock of water. The sight of a cultivated land attracted him into a cove in the vicinity of the *PAXIMADE* Islands, where he rightly supposed that he would find water. No sooner was the vessel brought to an anchor, than almost all the crew hastened to land, in order to look for the spring or the rivulet which the appearance of the ground indicated. All on sudden a troop of Abadiots fell on them, cut them to pieces, and repaired on board, by means of the ship's longboat, before the captain could suspect what had happened on shore.

The inhabitants of the high mountains situated to the south of *CANEA* and *RETIMO*, are considered as the real descendants of those famous Cretans so long masters of the country. Known at the present day under the name of *Sphachiots*, they are distinguished from the other Greeks by their tall stature, by their handsome look, by their love of liberty, by their courage, their skill, and, above all, by the hatred which they have vowed against the usurpers of their island.

Mountains have been at all times, and among all nations, the last asylum of liberty, as they have always been the abode of strength and health. A rugged, untractable soil, which affords little subsistence, which compels man to a long and obstinate labour, which subjects him to sobriety, and condemns him to all sorts of privations, scarcely tempts conquering nations, when every rock, besides, is transformed into a fortress, when it is necessary to fight at every step vigorous, energetic men, who defend with obstinacy the soil which has given them birth, and the independence which it procures them.

Under the Romans, under the Saracens, under the Venetians, and under the Turks, the Sphachiots had found means to preserve their laws and their customs. They annually appointed their magistrates in the general assemblies of the people. Obligated by the Turks to transport, in summer, from the top of their mountains, the ice necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants of CANEA and RETIMO\*, they paid no tax, no impost; they had no agas; they never saw among them the agents of the Turkish government; they formed, in a word, a republic in some measure independent, when, in 1769, some Russian emissaries came to disturb the peace, and impair the happiness which these privileged Greeks enjoyed on their mountains.

Whether CATHERINE had really conceived the project of expelling the Turks from EUROPE, and of placing her grandson on the throne of CONSTANTINE; whether she wished only to call the attention of her enemies to a distance from the places whither she was going to carry her principal forces; it is certain that, on the unexpected appearance of some Russian line-of-battle ships, in February 1770, in the environs of CORON and of NAVARIN, all the Greeks of the MOREA, those of MACEDONIA and of EPIRUS,

\* The inhabitants of CANDIA procure it from Mount IDA.

and the greater part of those of the ARCHIPELAGO, rose at the same instant, flew to arms, and manifested a courage of which they were not thought capable. At this period twenty thousand muskets distributed opportunely, and ten thousand Russians commanded by experienced generals, would certainly have produced, throughout European TURKEY, a revolution which would for ever have delivered the Greeks of those countries from the Ottoman yoke.

The Sphachiots, in these circumstances, were not the last to take up arms. Some hundreds of the bravest among them went and joined the Mainots their friends, and proceeded together to offer their services to Count ORLOFF. A greater number were preparing to set out, when they received an account that the Russians, who had but three ships of the line and two frigates, which were destitute of military stores and land-forces, had raised the siege of CORON, and deserted the Greeks, who had already made themselves masters of NAVARIN, PATRAS, MISITRA, and some other towns less important.

The Albanian Mussulmans, against whom no precaution had been taken, either by sea or by land, they who a few batteries on the Isthmus of CORINTH, and a few vessels of small force in the Gulfs of LEPANTE and ATHENS, would have prevented from coming into the MOREA, immediately spread themselves over that peninsula, beat every where the Greeks, disheartened by the unexpected retreat of the Russians, and made among them a horrible slaughter. The ravage which these Albanians committed on that unfortunate land, will never be repaired as long as the Turks shall be masters of those countries, and the caprice of a few rulers shall be able to dispose of the fortunes and the lives of the inhabitants.

The pacha of CANDIA, informed of the conduct of the Sphachiots, resolved, in the same year 1770, to march against them with all the forces of the island. He wished to exterminate them, and by those means afford a terrible example of severity to all the Greeks who might be tempted to imitate them. The Turks, always ready to fight when they are persuaded that there are christians to be killed, towns to be plundered, boys and girls to be violated, and slaves of all ages and of both sexes to be sold, were soon united under their colours. Soldiers and cultivators, traders and workmen, all wished to take a part in this expedition. Fifteen thousand men, armed at all points, arrived in a few days at the nearest mountains, on which they found not one inhabitant. The women and children of the Sphachiots, accompanied by the old men and the infirm, had gained the most elevated spots, and the most inaccessible places. Those whose age allowed them to handle a musket or a sword, to the number of upwards of two thousand, posted with intelligence at the second chain of their mountains, disputed with courage every rock, stopped for a long time, at every gorge, the Turks by no means habituated to this manner of fighting; and when a passage was forced, or a rock carried, the Sphachiots, lightly clothed, and lightly armed, accustomed to climb mountains, disappeared in a moment; while the Turk, who knows not how to fight but on horseback, who is both heavily clothed, and heavily armed, could not follow his enemy across the rocks and precipices, which it was necessary to clear in order to reach him.

During the whole summer, the Turks displayed a great deal of perseverance in fighting the Sphachiots; but being afterwards surprised at a resistance which they did not expect, disappointed in their hopes, frightened at the approaches of the cold, and tired of a painful and disagreeable war, they loudly demanded to return home. The Sphachiots, on their side, found themselves reduced to the last extremity: almost all their villages had been

set on fire: a great number of their women and children had been carried off; they had lost their flocks; their provisions were exhausted; and the earth which they could not cultivate, no longer afforded them any thing; so that they received with pleasure the first proposals that were made to them: they consented to pay the annual tribute to which all the Greeks are subject; and, by these means, they were enabled to return to their habitations, and continue their barter with the maritime towns.

As the Turks, on this occasion, had not been able to take with them horses, and to cause themselves to be followed by beasts of burden, they had thought of loading three or four thousand Greeks with their baggage; and in the different battles which they had to fight, they placed these Greeks in front of them, in order to make themselves a rampart of their bodies.

This trait of barbarity and cowardice, which was related to us by a great number of Sphachiots, was what most affected these brave mountaineers, and what most contributed to reduce them to a deplorable condition. Frequently they durst not fire on their enemies, for fear of hitting those whom they considered as their brothers, still more unfortunate than themselves.

Although the Sphachiots pay their karatch with the greatest repugnance, and are well disposed to avail themselves of the first favourable moment for attempting to shake off the yoke which hangs heavy on their necks, they took good care, during the last war of the Russians against the Turks, not to yield to the solicitations that were made to them to take a part in the armaments which took place at TRIESTE, and which were commanded by Captain *LAMBRO*. They had, on this occasion, formed a better judgment of events, than they had done on the other; and, indeed, they have had only to congratulate themselves on this conduct; they would infallibly have lost the few privileges which they have remaining.

LAMBRO CANZIANI, born at THEBES of poor parents, gave himself up, from his infancy, to the profession of a seaman. Early in life he was acquainted with all the coast of GREECE and of the PELOPONNESUS; he visited almost all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO; he had several times occasion to anchor in all the harbours and in all the bays of the BLACK SEA; and though he was but a common sailor, he distinguished himself in such a manner by his intelligence, his courage, his boldness, and, above all, by his hatred towards the Turks, that he was admitted, while yet young, as an officer, into the service of RUSSIA. In this quality, he took part in the siege of CORON, in 1770; he was in the same year at the engagement of TCHESME. He signalized himself repeatedly on the BLACK SEA during the conquest of the CRIMEA by the Russians; at last he was promoted, by the empress of RUSSIA, to the rank of colonel.

The war which took place in 1787 made this man, who was no less brave than enterprising, conceive the hope of acting a great part in his own country. He knew that the Greeks are always roused at the word Liberty: he knew them to be capable of the greatest efforts for obtaining it: he flattered himself with releasing them from the Ottoman yoke, if the court of RUSSIA would accede to his views.

But it appears that CATHERINE was not disposed to second projects which she, perhaps, thought extravagant, and perhaps, too, she was dissuaded from it by the Russian nobility, who, it is said, consider the conquest of European TURKEY, and the emancipation of the Greeks, as contrary to their interests. Be this as it may, LAMBRO, being neither able to obtain from the empress money nor ships, did not the less decide on fitting out at TRIESTE, at the expense of his friends, twelve small vessels, of which he took the command, and on board of which he obtained permission to hoist the Russian flag.

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However feeble this armament was, it greatly perplexed the Turks; it electrified the Greeks of the MOREA and of EPIRUS: those of the ARCHIPELAGO contented themselves with sending privately a few sailors; those of CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, and SALONICA, appeared to take no part in it; but all secretly furnished money.

Already was this fleet reinforced by important captures; already did LAMBRO consider himself as the approaching deliverer of GREECE, when, all of a sudden, the object of the war was changed, and it was terminated by an unexpected peace. In 1790 and 1791, it was much more important, to stop the progress of the French revolution, than to render the Greeks independent. The two courts of AUSTRIA and RUSSIA were, in some measure, obliged to adjourn the war against the Turks at the moment when the coallesced powers would have parcelled out FRANCE, divided her forces, annihilated her fleets, and burnt or destroyed her arsenals.

Peace being concluded, LAMBRO received orders to lay aside the Russian flag, and even to lay up his squadron. He obeyed for a moment; but presently he began again to cruise under the same flag, and once more infested the ARCHIPELAGO and the coast of the MOREA. The PORTE complained to the Russian ambassador, who disowned LAMBRO; so that there remained for the Turks no other course to take than to arm quickly, in order to stop the progress of a man whom they knew to be powerfully supported.

LAMBRO, who had then several frigates or corvettes, and a great number of other small vessels well equipped, and manned by determined men, resisted by his courage, or escaped by his skill, from the ships which the PORTE sent against him. But he was afterwards attacked by forces so considerable, commanded by the Algerines and the Turks united, that he was entirely destroyed, and ran the greatest risk of losing his life. On this occasion, he

performed prodigies of valour; and though he had to fight several ships of the line, he disputed the victory the whole day: he had seen almost the whole of his flotilla taken, sunk, or burnt, while he was still fighting. His ship was full of shot-holes, and threatened every moment to carry him to the bottom. Night fortunately came and put an end to this too unequal conflict, and also furnished him with the means of making his escape in boats with part of the heroes by whom he had been so nobly supported.

This reverse did not damp the courage of LAMBRO: his genius and activity furnished him with fresh resources. It was not long before he had a squadron almost as strong as the former, with which he again made his appearance in the ARCHIPELAGO. It is certain that this extraordinary man would long have perplexed the PORTE, had he not had the inadvertence to disoblige almost all the Greeks, by making an improper use of the credit and forces which he held from their generosity; by imperiously requiring what was at first, on their part, only a voluntary offering; by tolerating the excesses in which the crews of his vessels indulged themselves; and if, in short, in order to procure money, he had not, like a real pirate, taken the liberty of attacking and capturing indiscriminately merchant-vessels, which his interest even prescribed to him to respect. A kerlanguisch and a galley under his orders ventured, in May or June 1792, to attack and burn two French ships lying at anchor a league from NAPOLI DI ROMANIA, although there was in the seas of the LEVANT a division of French frigates destined to protect our commerce.

In the mean time the PORTE, informed of the new armament of LAMBRO, and of the part which the Mainots were taking in it, had reinforced the squadron of the captain-pacha; and, at the same time, caused its troops of the MOREA to march, in order to attack the Mainots on the side of

MISITRA,

MISITRA, while the squadron should act in the Gulfs of CORON and COLOKYTHIA, which was known to be LAMBRO's refuge.

At the time when M. DE CHOISEUL was informing M. DE ST. VALLIER, commander of the division, of what was going on, M. DE VENEL, captain of the *MODESTE*, had arrived at CORON, in order to revenge the outrage committed on the French flag. Having learnt that LAMBRO was at anchor in PORTO QUAGLIO, he immediately made sail for the purpose of forcing in his retreat this man, who was now no more than a dangerous pirate that it was necessary to hasten to destroy.

On the 17th of June, M. DE VENEL presented himself off the harbour: he found it well fortified, and in a good state of defence. In a small cove, situated by the side of the harbour, was a cutter moored with a spring on her cable, and protected by two batteries erected on shore: it was by this part that M. DE VENEL resolved to commence his attack. While he was preparing for battle, he saw arrive the squadron under the orders of HUSSEIN, who was come also with the intention of attacking LAMBRO's flotilla.

In the course of the day the French frigate had two engagements, during which she greatly damaged the batteries, and in particular handled the cutter very roughly. Towards the evening, she had a third action in concert with a Turkish frigate, and for the night, with a view of preventing any vessel from making her escape either from the cove or the harbour, the captain-pacha sent another frigate and three kerlanguischs, the command of which he gave to M. DE VENEL. On the 18th, the batteries of the cove ceased their fire, and the cutter was carried. On the same day, the French frigate, accompanied by two Turkish frigates and three kerlanguischs, went to attack PORTO QUAGLIO. LAMBRO's flotilla consisted of eleven vessels of different sizes. The engagement lasted all the rest of the day. It was remarked, that

the whole of the enemy's fire was directed against the *MODESTE*. LAMBRO was persuaded, no doubt, that if he could cripple her, it would have been easy for him to escape from the forces of the pacha.

At night-fall a council of war was held on board the flag-ship; and it was resolved, agreeably to the opinion of M. PEYRON, lieutenant of the *MODESTE*, that the French frigate should cruise, as she had done on the preceding nights, with the two Turkish frigates and the three kerlanguischs, and that at day-light she should force the entrance of the harbour, accompanied by the whole squadron.

According to this plan, the attack was renewed on the 19th at day-break. The silence of the batteries and of the vessels at first excited surprise; but it was soon discovered that all of them had been abandoned during the night. LAMBRO, and all the Greeks under his command, had made their escape among the Mainots, or, under favour of the night, had got off in their boats. The captain-pacha, delighted that he had been so successful in his first essay, swore eternal friendship to the French, promised distinguished protection to her seamen, thanked M. DE VENEL, distributed some money and some refreshments to the crew of the *MODESTE*, took possession of the deserted flotilla, and hastened to return to CONSTANTINOPLE, to receive the congratulations of the great and the benedictions of the people.

CHAPTER XIII.

*Extent and population of the Island of Crete.—Details respecting the productions of each province.—Plants of which the inhabitants make use.—Natural history.*

THE Island of CRETE is about sixty leagues or thirty myriameters in length, from its most western coast to Cape SAMONIUM, situated in the most eastern part. Its greatest breadth, in passing by Mount IDA, is about thirteen leagues. It is but three from the head of the Gulf of MIRABEL to HIERA PETRA, and six or seven from RETIMO to the mouth of the rivulet called MEGALO POTAMO: but when a person travels on horseback, the turnings which he is obliged to make, on account of the mountains, render the road every where as long again, independently of its being extremely rugged.

The north coast is much more sinuous than the south: it has a greater number of harbours and roadsteads: here are to be found excellent anchorages, while the south coast affords but a few places where a ship can cast anchor in safety.

The rivers are, in a manner, nothing more than torrents swelled in winter by the rains, and in the spring by the melting of the snow: few among them preserve all the year a part of their waters; but there are a tolerably great number of springs, of which the inhabitants make use for the watering of the lands. True it is that the greater part of these springs issue so close to the sea-shore, that it is almost impossible to employ them for that purpose.

According to the registers of the collector of the karatch, the population of the Greeks must be estimated at one hundred and twenty thousand: there are reckoned about twenty thousand men paying that tax. If we next consider the great number of janizaries registered in the towns, and if we pay attention that some villages are almost entirely peopled by Turks, or partly by Turks and partly by Greeks, we shall be inclined to believe that there are in the island nearly as many of the one as of the other, and that the total amount of the population is two hundred and forty thousand inhabitants.

If we may credit the merchants who have grown gray in their counting-houses, and who have directed an observing eye to their commerce, the number of the Greeks is insensibly diminishing from the effect of servitude, from emigrations, from the discouragement to which a cultivator is subject, and from the continual exactions which they experience. Wretchedness occasions the death of some from inanition in particular; it kills a great many children; it opposes the union of the two sexes. We may presume, that if the PORTE do not change its system in regard to the non-Mussulmans, if it do not quickly decide on protecting them against its agents, the population of the Greeks will disappear from the places occupied by the Turks, or the latter will be driven from the European continent on the first opportunity that shall present itself.

We have said that the island was divided into three governments, subdivided into districts or provinces: we shall take a look at the productions of each of them in particular.

In the most western part, lie KISSAMOS to the north, and SELINO to the south, which divide into two portions the ground comprised between that space. KISSAMOS, whose name has been preserved till our time without alteration, was formerly the harbour of APTERA: at this day it is a small

town, which would be of some importance, had not the pachas prohibited the exportation of the commodities of the island, except from the chief place of their government.

This province is one of the best cultivated and the most productive of the island: it furnishes a tolerably large quantity of oil and wine; it produces honey, wax, and silk: here very little barley and wheat are gathered. The greater part of its mountains are wooded: here are found scattered a great many common and holm oaks, the acorns of which allow the Greeks to breed a sufficiently large number of hogs. Here are also seen a great many carob-trees, whose fruits are carried to CANEA. Above the village of *NOMALO*, situated on the first link of the chain of the *WHITE MOUNTAINS*, is a somewhat considerable forest of oaks, whence is drawn the greater part of the wood and charcoal that is consumed at CANEA.

In this province, the vine deserves some attention: it is cut so near the root, that there remains no apparent shoot; which does not prevent it from sending forth several vigorous branches, and from yielding a tolerably great quantity of grapes. Those who are the best cultivators, give but one hoeing to their vines, and never put to them any manure. They prefer employing it on lands intended for the reception of grain, or of some kitchen-garden plants.

When they wish to plant a vine, the inhabitants of *KISSAMOS* content themselves with sticking in the ground, to the depth of two feet, a pointed iron, and with setting their plant in the hole, at the same time pricking the earth all round by means of the same iron. This method is undoubtedly defective; but it saves the expenses of plantations; and in a country where it is dangerous for a man to be richer than his neighbour, industry is always paralyzed. Besides, why should the Greek endeavour, in the country-places,

to double the produce of his field? He is satisfied if he have bread for his family: two or three casks of wine are sufficient for him; if he had five or six, it would be remarked: the foubachi would not want pretexts for informing against him, and the aga means for stripping him.

The wine of KISSAMOS is a claret, spirituous, and of a tolerably good quality: as it is not an article of commerce, because the carriage to CANEA would be too expensive, the Greeks and Mussulmans make of it a rather great consumption. The former convert a part of it into brandy for their winter stock, because it keeps better, and takes up less room than wine.

The grapes are gathered in the beginning of Fruclidor: at this period they have acquired their full maturity. They are carried to the press constructed in masonry in the middle of the vineyard: there, they are heaped up, and left eight or ten days exposed to the sun. They are then trodden; and the unfermented wine is carried home, where it is poured into casks. A fourth or a fifth part of water is generally added, and most of the inhabitants are in the habit of putting into the wine which they intend for the Turks, salt, plaster, and even lime, in order to give it a tartness, which the latter are fond of, and hold in request.

On the Gulf of KISSAMOS is a quarry of beautiful gypsum, which the Crețans work ill. The masons of the country are acquainted with no other manner of converting it into plaster, than by putting it pounded, to the thickness of five or six inches, into the baker's oven.

The fort of GRABUSA, situated on a steep islet, at the most western and northern part of CRETE, is comprised in the district of KISSAMOS. The Turks not being able to make themselves masters of this fort at the beginning of the last century, resolved to corrupt the commander, and the latter was  
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immoral enough to hold out his hand to the gold that was offered to him, and cowardly enough to deliver up a place intrusted to him by the republic of VENICE. The junction of three small islands and an advanced cape forms a natural harbour, in which the largest ships anchor in safety. The population of the Turks of KISSAMOS is estimated at upwards of a third of the inhabitants.

The province which lies to the south of that of KISSAMOS, has taken its name of SELINO, a small town built on the south coast of the island, in the situation formerly occupied by *Lissa*, or *Lissus*, a place of little importance, of which PROLEMY makes mention. It is very fertile, although it is almost entirely mountainous. It furnishes a little silk, honey, wax, and a tolerably large quantity of fruits, such as cherries, apricots, peaches, pears, and oranges. This is the only province where the chestnut-tree is cultivated: that tree is there abundant, and thrives exceedingly well on the schistose hills and mountains of this country. The chestnuts are carried to CANEA, RETIMO, and CANDIA. In those towns they are eaten from the middle of Vendémiaire to the end of the spring. Every year a rather large quantity is exported to SYRIA.

Oil is, however, the principal commodity of SELINO: it is reckoned better in this province, than in all the rest of the island. The merchants of CANEA generally establish their speculations on the quantity and the quality of the oils of SELINO.

Wine, wheat, and barley, are in no great plenty. The population of the Turks is estimated at a fourth or a fifth of the inhabitants.

After these two provinces come CIDONIA to the north, and SPHACHIA to the south: the latter extends to the east much more than the former; it  
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is considered as making part of the pachalik of CANDIA. We shall return to it presently, when we have said a word of the provinces situated to the north, comprised in the pachalik of CANEA and in that of REFINO.

CIDONIA, or KIDONIA, which has retained its name of the ancient city of the Cretans, produces oil, grain, cotton, flax, silk, honey, wax, some fruits, and a tolerably large quantity of cheese: its territory is, in general, extremely fertile. The nearest mountains which lie to the south, being more temperate and more cool than the territory of CANEA, yield a great many fruits: little wine, a great deal of oil, and a middling quantity of wheat and barley, are here produced.

The first chain of the high mountains of SRIACHIA, which comes next, comprised in the province of KIDONIA, is covered with snow for four or five months. It is, in general, stony and destitute of earth: there are but a few narrow vallies which are susceptible of culture. Here barley is sown in May, which is gathered in September. The harvest of this grain taking place, in the environs of the sea, at the beginning of May, it pretty frequently happens that the cultivator sows on these mountains the barley recently gathered in the plain. He may, in the same manner, if he please, come in October, and sow it again in the environs of the coast. But as it has been found that new seed is not so good as that which has lain some time, it is only for want of other seed that recourse is had to the former.

It is also on these mountains that the flocks are brought, as soon as the snow is melted; and though the ground appears almost naked, cattle here find a food, if not abundant, at least very relishing, and very fit for giving to their milk and their flesh a quality which cannot be attained by those that are bred in the most fertile places.

In the environs of CANEA, the population of the Turks is as numerous as that of the Greeks.

Three leagues from this town begins the province of *APOCORONA*, which extends to the east as far as *ARMIRO*, and to the south as far as the mountains of *SPHACHIA*. It presents no particular culture: it is mountainous, and furnishes in abundance oil, a small quantity of barley and wheat, and very little wine: it is more peopled by Greeks than by Turks.

The province of *RETIMO*, which comes next, is one of the best cultivated and most productive of the island: it furnishes a great deal of oil, a little barley and wheat, and a tolerably large quantity of wine. The rising grounds and hills which skirt the shore of *ARMIRO*, are almost all covered with vines. On the nearest mountains which lie to the south, is to be remarked a forest of common and holm oaks, maples, and carob-trees, into which the inhabitants of *RETIMO* come to cut the wood that they stand in need of.

To the south of *RETIMO* are the two provinces of *AÏON-VASSALI* and *AMARI*, the only ones that are comprised in this pachalik: they furnish wheat, barley, oil, and some fruits. The former, situated to the north-west of the other, furnishes, besides, excellent cheese, which is confounded, in trade, with that of *SPHACHIA*. The Greeks are more numerous than the Turks in the provinces of *AÏON-VASSALI* and *AMARI*.

The Sphachiots, as we have said, inhabit the high mountains which extend from east to west, from the province of *SEUTINO* as far as that of *AMARI*: they are considered as being comprised in the pachalik of *CANDIA*, though the interior police and administration belong to themselves. Independently of a great number of villages which are on these mountains, some are re-

marked towards the south coast, and among others *SPHACHIA*, their chief place, where is a small harbour that contains seven or eight large boats, of which the Sphachiots make use for their trade, and sometimes too for the piracies which they practise in imitation of their ancestors.

The Maltese, in their excursions, formerly frequented the harbour of *SPHACHIA*. They were well received there by the inhabitants, who were eager to furnish them with provisions and all the assistance which they wanted.

*SPHACHIA* produces scarcely any oil; but, to make the inhabitants amends, here are gathered a little wheat and a pretty considerable quantity of barley: it also furnishes honey and wax. Its principal production consists in little cheeses made with ewe's milk, which are exported to *CONSTANTINOPLE*.

During the winter, the Sphachiots are in the habit of sending their flocks towards the sea-side, because in that mild and rainy season grass is there in plenty; but, on the first warm weather in summer, they drive them back to browse at home on the rich pastures which the milder temperature and the gradual melting of the snow always maintain in a state of verdure.

The wine which these Greeks make on the first link of the chain of their mountains, would be sufficient for the wants of the whole year with a little economy; but they generally drink with so much intemperance during the three or four months which succeed that of the vintage, that they are obliged to drink pure water the remainder of the year. Few among them are prudent enough, it is said, to use with sobriety a liquor as wholesome, when it is taken in moderation, as it is prejudicial when the dose is too powerful.

The first province that is met with in the north part of the island, after quitting the territory of *RETIMO*, is called *NILO-POTAMO*: it extends to the south-east even beyond Mount *IDA*, and comprises the districts of *ARLO-POTAMO*, *LIMBIS*, *ARCADI*, and *RISO-CASTRO*. It yields wheat, barley, silk, flax, cotton, and some fruits: here is produced a rather large quantity of oil, though the greater part of the olive-trees neither receive manure nor hoeing, and are in some measure abandoned.

This province was formerly comprehended in the pathalik of *RETIMO*; but, about fifty years ago, a pacha of *CANDIA*, considering it as an excellent mine to be worked, warmly solicited the *PORTE*, and obtained, that it should be annexed to his pachalik. This measure greatly contributed to diminish the number of the inhabitants, as well as the produce of the lands; for, independently of the exactions which were made on those who were in easy circumstances, the obligation to which the pacha subjects all the cultivators to carry their oils to *CANDIA*, where less is paid for them than at *RETIMO*, and the considerable increase of the expenses resulting from a greater distance and worse roads, across mountains which it is necessary to pass—every thing has thrown the inhabitants into a sort of discouragement of which the *PORTE* is ignorant, and to which the pacha has no intention of putting a stop. Satisfied with increasing the produce of the customs, the latter gives himself little concern whether the inhabitants have to lament the measures which the *PORTE* has taken in regard to them.

In the territory of *CANDIA* are gathered very little cotton, a great deal of wheat and barley, and a considerable quantity of raisins. Several cargoes of these last are shipped for *SYRIA* and *EGYPT*. The Mussulmans of those countries make them the principal ingredient in their sherbets: the Christians are in the habit of putting them into a certain quantity of water, and of leaving them to ferment for ten, twelve, or fifteen days, according to the

temperature of the air. They afterwards distil them, and obtain from them a very agreeable brandy. The preparation of these raisins consists in gathering them, when they are very ripe, and spreading them on the ground, exposing them for several days to a burning sun. They are afterwards stoned, and then packed up for carriage.

There are scarcely any olive-trees in the territory of **CANDIA**, although the soil is very fit for the culture of that tree. The Turks there are as numerous as the Greeks.

The Island of **DIA**, or of **STANDIA**, is situated three leagues to the north-east by east of **CANDIA**. It is about four miles long by two broad: its circumference is irregular: in its south part, are three natural harbours, where ships of burden, bound to **CANDIA**, cast anchor and unload a part of their cargo, because the harbour of that town is not deep enough to receive them when they are fully laden. On their departure, they in like manner go and wait at **DIA** till boats bring them wherewith to complete their lading.

A ship of the line which might be driven by a too violent northerly wind towards **CRETE**, and which could not gain the Gulf of **SUDA**, or **SPINA-LONGA**, would find an asylum at **DIA**. The middle harbour, called *PORTO DELLA MADONA*, is the best of the three: a vessel may cast anchor there in from six or eight fathoms water up to a considerable depth.

On doubling the east point, you meet with a fourth harbour, by no means safe, rather shallow, and open to the east wind, but sheltered from the south, west, and north-west. A merchant-vessel, caught in a gale of wind, might in like manner here take refuge.

This island is lofty, rugged, and entirely calcareous: it neither is inhabited nor cultivated. The rock is every where naked, except towards the summit, where is perceived a foil which would be fit for the culture of the vine and the olive-tree. It appears that there were anciently in this spot some habitations, to judge from the heaps of stones and bricks to be found here. In various places are met with a whitish marble, which has never been worked, and some veins, of several feet in thickness, of streaked alabaſter, which is thought to be of the greateſt beauty.

On this island are a conſiderable quantity of rabbits: there are alſo ſome wild goats, which it is difficult to ſee and to ſhoot at, becauſe they keep in places inacceſſible to man. We here ſaw, beſides, ſeveral cats of different colours, which we preſumed to have belonged to veſſels caſt away.

The province of *MESSARA*, which lies to the ſouth of that of *CANDIA*, is the moſt fertile and the moſt agreeable of the iſland: it has, among others, a very beautiful plain ſix leagues in extent, in which are gathered in abundance wheat, barley, flax, cotton, and a variety of fruits. It is croſſed by a ſmall river at this day called *MALOGNITHI*, and formerly known by the name of *LETHE*. It paſſes by the ſide of the ruins of *GORTYNA*, and empties itſelf into the ſea facing the *PAXIMADI* Iſlands.

When the Romans had conquered the iſlands, and humbled the pride of *CNOSSUS*, *GORTYNA* became the moſt conſiderable and the moſt beautiful city of *CRETE*. It had two harbours to the ſouth, one of which named *METALLUM*, ſituated oppoſite to two iſlets, is to be found again in the word *METALA*, which this place ſtill bears. The other, called *LEBENA*, was five or ſix leagues more to the eaſtward.

Three leagues to the north of these ruins, is seen the famous labyrinth, which might be taken for an old quarry of soft, calcareous stone, or for a place of habitation, capable of containing a whole colony, had not ancient authors said that it was constructed by DÆDALUS, on the model of the labyrinth of EGYPT, and that it served as a place of confinement for the Minotaur.

The wheat of MESSARA is one of the best of TURKEY: it yields a great deal of flour, and makes an excellent bread. Cultivators convey it on the back of their asses to CANDIA, to RETIMO, and even to CANEA; and, however plentiful the harvest may be, they never keep any for themselves. As well as the other cultivators of the island, they live all the year on a very coarse barley-bread. The pure wheat is reserved for the agas and for the rich inhabitants of the towns.

This province is justly reckoned the granary of CRETE. All the lands are in culture, and they commonly produce fifteen or twenty for one; while elsewhere the cultivator is well satisfied if he obtain six or eight times the seed which he has intrusted to the best grounds: true it is that their culture is much neglected, and that they seldom receive manure. The Turks here are more numerous than the Greeks.

The province of MIRABEL, which lies to the east of that of CANDIA, is populous, fertile, and abundant in oil, grain, and fruit. Formerly the inhabitants saw several French vessels come to the road of MIRABEL and the harbour of SPINA-LONGA, in order to load with oil, which kept up its price, and diffused among them a degree of comfort which they no longer enjoy, since they have been forced to carry it, at a great expense, to CANDIA, and to sell it at a low price to the Turkish proprietors of the soap-houses established in that town.

Cultivators, discouraged by this inconsiderate order, neglect from day to day their olive-trees, and make, besides, a greater consumption of oil and olives than they did before. They salt a large quantity of this fruit, which they make the principal article of their subsistence. They also eat a great many wild herbs as a salad, or fried with oil; and thus it is that the pacha of CANDIA, who hoped to increase the produce of the customs, by preventing the fraud which might have been committed far from his sight, has, on the contrary, seen that produce imperceptibly diminish, because they no longer export from this province one half of the oils which were thence exported formerly.

The road of MIRABEL faces the east, and affords to vessels, which may put in there, a tolerably safe anchorage. It is sheltered and defended by two small islands situated in front. The town has greatly diminished since commerce has taken another direction. Here are, nevertheless, still reckoned fifteen hundred inhabitants, the greater part Greeks and cultivators.

SPINA-LONGA, which lies a few leagues more to the north, is one of the best harbours of the island. It is formed by a peninsula which secures it from the easterly winds. Its entrance faces the north north-east; but it is sheltered and protected by an islet on which the Venetians had built a fortress similar to that of SUDA. For a long time the Turks made fruitless attempts to render themselves masters of this fortress: it was not till the beginning of the last century that the Venetians permitted them to take possession of it.

The province of *INFRA-PETRA*, or *GERA PETRA*, is to the south of that of MIRABEL: like the latter, it produces oil, grain, various fruits, honey, wax, flax, &c.; but it suffers equally from the prohibition which the pacha has issued of selling commodities any where but at CANDIA. French vessels

came

came formerly to load with oil in the road of *HIERA-PETRA*: in order to sell that commodity, the inhabitants are at this day obliged to make by land a trip which requires three or four days' journey.

The town, known in ancient times under the names of *CYRBA*, *CAMYRUS*, and *HIERA PYTNA*, is at the present hour no more than a village, whose population is daily diminishing. Its roadstead is too much exposed to the southerly winds, and particularly to the *sirocco*, to be frequented. The European vessels which came thither formerly, hastened to take in their cargo and to get away.

The province of *SETTIA* occupies all the eastern part of the island: it is the most extensive, but the least peopled, and the least productive, though it is, in a great measure, susceptible of culture, and though most of its lands are of the greatest fertility. But the remoteness from the capital, the want of harbours, the inconsiderate injustice of the agas—every thing concurs to render the inhabitants of this part of the island more indolent than the others. Contented with gathering corn and fruit for their subsistence, oil for paying their taxes, and procuring themselves a few clothes, and the utensils necessary for their family, they endeavour not to snatch from the earth a surplus of productions, with which they would be embarrassed, or of which their agas would not fail to take possession.

The town is situated on a flat shore, which a cape not much advanced, and three islets placed at upwards of a league's distance, protect but feebly from the north and north-east winds. It was tolerably well fortified, and sufficiently peopled, when the Venetians were masters of the island: they had there constructed a mole, in order to shelter the vessels which came thither to load with the productions of the province, or which brought those claimed

by

by the wants of the inhabitants. At **SETTIA** are at this day seen none but small boats: the population has diminished considerably, and the fortifications are not kept in the least order.

**Mount DIETÆ** occupies in this province an extent somewhat considerable, in a direction from east to west. Although it is one of the most elevated points of the island next to **Mount IDA** and the **WHITE MOUNTAINS**, its top is not covered with snow: it is only more cool and more moist than the mountains in the environs of the sea, and would be very well calculated for the feeding of a great number of flocks.

The carob-tree, a tree of moderate size which grows without culture all over the island, and particularly delights in stony grounds and in the clefts of rocks, is here more abundant than any where else: it has an agreeable port, a foliage always green, flowers very small, without corollas; brown fruits, flattened in the form of pods, and a wood very hard, veined, of a beautiful deep red, very fit for cabinet and inlaid work; but what depreciates this wood, is that it is very subject to rot when the tree grows old: its blea, besides, is too considerable, too tender, and of a whitish colour.

The fruits of the carob-tree are conveyed to **CONSTANTINOPLE**, into **SYRIA**, and into **EGYPT**: they serve for food to the poor and to children; the latter are very fond of chewing the sweet and luscious pulp which they contain. Mixed with liquorice-root, raisins, and other different fruits, it serves for composing the sherbets of which the **Mussulmans** make a daily use.

Among the great number of wild or cultivated plants on which the inhabitants of **CRETE** subsist, we shall remark:

The leaves of kidney-beans, boiled and fried with olive-oil.

The leaves of chich-peas, boiled and raw, as a salad.

The leaves and the flowers of pumpkins, boiled.

The leaves of vines, boiled and pickled with vinegar.

The leaves of horseradish, boiled.

The leaves and the tops of mustard and of a great number of cruciform plants, boiled and fried.

The leaves and the stems of blite, boiled.

The leaves of several species of oraches, boiled.

The leaves and the stems of common black night-shade \*, boiled.

The leaves of corn, or red poppy †, boiled.

The leaves of mallow, boiled.

The young shoots of wild or acute-leaved asparagus ‡, boiled.

The stems of the common rough bindweed §, and of the lofty-climbing oriental bindweed ||, boiled.

Prickly chicory, raw, as a salad.

Dandelion, and a great number of chicoraceous plants, as a salad.

The leaves of various species of scorzonera, as a salad.

The greater part of the campanulas, valerians, and scabiouses, as a salad.

The leaves of bramble, boiled, and the tender tops, raw, as a salad.

The ears of green maize, raw.

The roots of parsley, boiled, as a salad, and as a ragout.

The stems and the leaves of fennel, boiled, as a salad, and pickled in vinegar.

The fruits of the *love-apple* ¶, boiled, and as a ragout, or as seasoning.  
*A cultivated plant.*

The leaves and the buds of the thornless caper-bush, pickled in vinegar.

\* *Solanum nigrum*. LINN.

† *Papaver rhæas*. LINN.

‡ *Asparagus acutifolius*. LINN.

§ *Smilax aspera*. LINN.

|| *Smilax excelsa*. LINN.

¶ *Solanum lycopersicum*. LINN.

Among the cultivated plants, we remarked the bristly-leaved corchorus, or common Jew's mallow\*, which we again saw in still greater abundance in EGYPT. Its leaves are eaten with pleasure, during the whole summer, as a ragout or simply boiled, squeezed, and seasoned with olive-oil. Care is taken to sow the seeds from the end of the winter to the end of the spring, in watered places. The plant is annual, branchy, and rises to the height of two feet.

*Ketmia*, or *bamia*†, known in the ANTILLES under the name of *gombreau*, is also cultivated, not only in CRETE, but throughout the LEVANT. Its fruit, from three to four inches long, is gathered from the end of Prairial to Fructidor, and eaten as a ragout alone, with different seasoning, and more frequently mixed with meat: it is insipid, viscous, and by no means difficult of digestion. The seeds are sown towards the end of the winter in watered places. This annual plant would thrive very well in the South of FRANCE.

To this list we might add the greater part of the kitchen-garden plants cultivated in EUROPE.

It is to be regretted that the potatoe is not known to the inhabitants of GREECE; it would certainly grow under the shade of the chestnut-tree of SELINO, on the WHITE MOUNTAINS, on Mount IDA, on Mount DIETÆ, and on all the elevated and cool places of the island. It would contribute to render independent the Sphachiots, whom the want of subsistence frequently calls to the maritime towns of the north coast: it would save the corn which, in general, runs short in this country: it would afford to all the Greeks a wholesome food which would not excite the envy of the greedy

\* *Corchorus olitorius*. LINN.—Corète potagère, LAMARCK. *Encyclop.*

† *Hibiscus esculentus*. LINN.—Ketmie comestible, LAMARCK. *Encyclop.*

Mussulman. It is to be hoped that the Sphachiots will one day be indebted for this benefit to the European merchants who reside at CANEA, or to the Greeks whom commerce at this day attracts to the principal cities of EUROPE.

When we cast our eye on the alimentary productions which the island furnishes, and which might be multiplied with the greatest facility, we are astonished that the Greek cultivators are reduced to live, the whole year, on barley-bread, salted olives, and wild plants. It seldom happens that they indulge themselves in the use of more delicate aliments: they prefer selling them in order to discharge the taxes, or pay the too frequent extortions of their agas. The inhabitants of the towns, and particularly the Europeans, live tolerably well at little expense. Mutton is every where excellent, and scarcely costs two sous the pound. Pork, bred and fed in most of the Greek villages, is exquisite, especially when it is young: it is cheaper than mutton, because the Turks dare not eat it. Lambs and kids appear on the shambles of the three principal towns, during several months of the year. From the end of the summer, are seen to come in abundance the quail, the turtle, the ring-dove, the loriote, the roller, the thrush, and a great number of fig-peckers, which are very delicate eating. The woodcock comes thither somewhat later, and there passes the winter. The blackbird remains there all the year: it is very fat in winter, and is very well tasted. In spring and summer, larks, ortolans, and a great many small birds, supply the place of the birds of passage. The hare and the partridge are every where very common; the francolin and the bartavelle or Greek red partridge, are more scarce. We saw not rabbits in great numbers, except on the small islands in the vicinity of CRETE. The argali and the wild goat are in tolerable plenty on the mountains and in the steep places. The villagers kill them sometimes by waiting to shoot at them from a place of concealment, and come to sell them at CANDIA, RETIMO, and CANEA. They also bring thither some poultry, which

which fatten in the fields on seeds and insects that are there to be found. The turkey-cock, in particular, is remarkable for its size, the delicacy of its flesh, and the low price at which it is obtained: for a piaſtre, or about two livres (20d. ſterling). a turkey may be purchaſed, weighing from twelve to fifteen pounds, and for one livre a bird of the ſame ſpecies, that weighs ſeven or eight. Beef is ſcarce, and the ox is little uſed but in country labour.

There are few countries in the LEVANT which afford a greater variety of intereſting vegetables than the Iſland of CRETE. The botaniſt may hope to reap there, in all ſeaſons, a harveſt more or leſs abundant. In fact, when the heat has parched up the earth, and burnt the greater part of the plants in the plains and on the hills in the vicinity of the ſea, then DICTÆ, IDA, and SPHACIA, which are ſituated in a temperature more mild and more moiſt, are covered with flowers of every ſpecies.

If the botaniſt quit theſe elevated places in the firſt rains of autumn, he is ſurpriſed to find under his feet a yellow-flowered ranunculus, tolerably fragrant, worthy of figuring in the gardens of floriſts; a ſweet-smelling, white narciſſus; ſeveral hyacinths, two ſpecies of ſaffron, a crocus, a day-lily, &c. Preſently he ſees the mandrake, the virtues of which empirics have extolled, but of which the wiſe phyſician is miſtruſtful as a venomous plant. The arboreſcent lucern flowers before the end of autumn. In Nivôſe, Pluviôſe, and Ventôſe, all the riſing grounds are covered with ranunculuses, anemones, ixiæ, crocuses, iriſes, and a great number of cruciform plants; to which ſucceed rapidly orchideæ, labiatæ, rock-roſes, ſome umbellatæ, and moſt of the leguminous plants. In the middle of ſummer are found ſome late plants, and a great number of buſhes and ſhrubs, ſuch as ſavorics, thymes, ſtachys, oleanders, myrtles, &c. and towards the end of the ſummer, ſome ſyngeneſia, among which is to be remarked the gummy-rooted atraçtylis.

The other branches of natural history are no less interesting than that of the plants: land-shells, for example, are here very common and very numerous. Independently of the species of EUROPE, here are to be found a great number which are not known to naturalists. We shall for the present content ourselves with giving an account of some of them.

1. The *flat-spired* helix (*PLATE XVIII. fig. 7. a, b, c.*). It keeps, during the summer, in the clefts of rocks, whence it probably does not issue till the early rains of autumn. The first time that we saw it, we were obliged to employ wedges for the purpose of splitting the rock. It is remarkable, from the first volute of the spire being convex and rounded, and from the others being flattened. If the shell be young (*c*), the first volute of the spire is sharp-edged. We likewise met with it at RHODES.\*

2. On some shrubs is found the *fasciolated* bulimus (*fig. 5.*), whose mouth is oval, brown within, and white on the edges. The shell is fusiform; white, with a great number of lines of a deep rufous colour, which imperceptibly disappear as it grows old. We saw it again at RHODES, in SYRIA, and in CARAMANIA†.

Among the bulimi, which are to be found in the rocks, are to be remarked :

3. The *twisted-necked* bulimus (*fig. 4. a, b.*) It is of a rufous white: its mouth is almost round, a little oval; the margin is slightly expanded, and

\* *HELIX spiriplana mediocris, depressa, umbilicata, circulis interruptè guttulis notata; anfractu primo convexo, cæteris discoideis planissimis; apertura collo continuato suborbiculata candida.*

† *BULIMUS fasciolatus parvus, oblongus, albidus, longitudinaliter fusco multilineatus; apertura intus tota fusca, labio simplici albo.*

displays within, on the right side, two small folds not very apparent. The neck is free and quadrangular. The last volutes of the spire are cut as in the decollated bulimus\*.

4. The *blunt* bulimus (*fig. 2. a. b.*) has an oval mouth, slightly bidentated, and reddish within. Each spire has a great number of very elevated lines. The extremity is always truncated when the shell has attained its full size †.

5. The *taper* bulimus (*fig. 6. a, b.*) is elongated, striated, and formed of fifteen or sixteen spires. The mouth is oval, a little oblong: it has within two folds on the side of the columella, more or less marked. The last spires are of a deep blackish blue ‡.

6. The *inflated* bulimus (*fig. 3. a, b.*) is not so long, and more inflated than the preceding; its striæ are more apparent: those of the last volute form wrinkles well marked. There are only twelve or thirteen volutes to its spire. The mouth is oval, and slightly bidentated: the extremity appears as if obstructed by some accessory folds ||.

Lizards do not commonly inspire as much fright as serpents: not one is known to be venomous; and nevertheless, in several places, we find an opinion established that some of these reptiles are extremely dangerous. The

\* *BULIMUS torticollis sinister, parvulus, dilute rubiginosus, valde truncatus, subcylindricus; collo libero, angustato, subquadrato; apertura subrectunda.*

† *BULIMUS retusus sinister, parvulus decollatus, fusiformi-cylindraceus, totus conspicue plicato-striatus, obsolete albus; apertura ovali, introrsum obscure bispicata, rugidula.*

‡ *BULIMUS teres sinister, parvulus, anguste fusiformis, obsolete striolatus, cum vertice atrato albidus; anfractibus planissimis; apertura ovato-oblonga, obscure bidentata.*

|| *BULIMUS indatus sinister, parvulus, ventricoso fusiformis, cum vertice atrato lacteus; leviter striolatus; apertura ovali, obscure bidentata, alba.*

first time that we saw the ocellated scink (*PLATE XVI. fig. 1.*), some Greeks who were with us shrunk back with horror, as if they had perceived the most dangerous viper. It was much worse when they saw us take it in our hand: they thought us undone. We wished to undeceive them respecting the supposed venom of this reptile, by suffering ourselves to be bitten: but we did not attain our object. The ignorant, as is well known, do not easily get the better of an error. These Greeks were then persuaded either that we were forcerers (for they believe in all fooleries of this kind), or that we were acquainted with an antidote for the venom of this animal.

This scink lives in the sand in CRETE, CYPRUS, and EGYPT, and not in the houses, as is asserted by FORSKAL.

All its body is covered with little imbricated, smooth, shining scales: it is of a yellowish gray beneath, and of a grayish green above, with oblique, transversal rows of hexagonal, black spots, each marked with a small quadrangular white spot. The tail, in some individuals, is in proportion longer than the species represented, and is marked with the same sort of spots as the body. The feet are short; the toes are slender, long, and terminated by a very distinct claw. This scink runs with tolerable nimbleness\*.

The lizard the most common in all the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in CRETE, in the MOREA, on the east coast of NATOLIA, in EGYPT, and in SYRIA, is the *stellio*, named by the Greeks, *cocordilos*†. It has the body

\* *STINCUS ocellatus supra griseo-virescens, maculis nigris hexagonis puncto albo notatis. Lacerta ocellata cauda tereti, imbricata, brevi. FORSKAL. Descript. Animal, page 13. Lacerta ocellata. GMEL. Syst. Nat. vol. i. pars. iii. p. 1077.*

† *TOURNEFORT, Voyage au Levant, vol. i. p. 313.*

*Lacerta stellio. LINN. Syst. Nat. p. 361. No. 10.*

*Le stellion, LACEPEDE. Quadr. Ovip. vol. i. p. 369.*

mixed with gray, yellowish, and brown; the head and the back covered with scales, simple or tubercled, and pointed. The scales of the feet are more turned up, and more pointed, than those of the back. The tail is verticillated, and covered with prickly scales. This lizard acquires ten or twelve inches in length. It lives on insects, and does no mischief. It is seen to seek the sun in summer: in winter it keeps in holes, and there passes that season in a sort of torpor.

## CHAPTER XIV.

*State of agriculture and of industry in Crete.—Character of the Turks.—Precautions which they take against the plague.—Export and import trade of this island.*

FAR from the rod of the Turks, and under the shield of their privileges, the Greeks of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, assured of being able to enjoy, to a certain degree, the fruit of their labours, in general, cultivate their fields, or apply themselves to some industry with sufficient ardour and intelligence. But in CRETE, exposed incessantly to see their crops taken away from them by the aga, to be stripped of their property by the pacha, to be insulted, cudgelled, and robbed by every janizary, the cultivators are never inclined to snatch from the earth, by an increase of labour, a produce which they would see pass into the hands of those whom they have so much reason to hate.

The fields which they cultivate, planted by their ancestors when a civilized, industrious, and trading people\* governed the island, and favoured agriculture, are running to waste from day to day: the olive-tree perishes, the vine disappears; the soil is washed away by the rains; yet these unfortunate Greeks, disheartened as they are, think not of repairing the damages which time is incessantly occasioning them. There is nothing but the pressing want of living and of paying the taxes that can induce them to gather their olives, sow their lands, and give their attention to a few bees.

\* The Venetians.

Industry is almost null in the Greek villages subject to the agas. It is not without trembling that the inhabitants there make a few coarse cloths, and the most simple implements of husbandry. The women are scarcely ever employed but in mending the old rags which they and their husbands wear as long as they can. When they dress themselves in new clothes, which happens but seldom, they avoid showy colours and stuffs of a certain price. They know that their suit would be taken away from them by the foubachi, or by some other Turk, and would even expose them to outrages.

This is not the case in SPHACHIA. The Greek of those mountains is at the same time shepherd, agriculturist, and artisan. He turns to a pretty good account the lands which he possesses; he breeds, with sufficient intelligence and success, a great number of cattle; he manufactures with tolerable skill the cloths with which he clothes himself, the utensils of which he makes use, and the implements which he employs. But the Sphachiot has preserved, as we have said before, the energy of the independent man, and the activity of him who enjoys without molestation the fruit of his labour.

The Turkish villages present not so much wretchedness as those belonging to the Greeks, because the cultivator is much more sure of his property, and may without fear improve it by every means in his power. Independently of the taxes which he pays, being, in general, less burdensome; independently of his being exempt from personal impost, it seldom happens that too revolting an injustice is committed in regard to him, because the inhabitants are ever ready to rise and defend him among them who should be oppressed.

Notwithstanding so many advantages, neither agriculture nor industry are in vigour among them. Being almost all enrolled among the janizaries, they depend on the pay which they have to receive; they also depend on the ex-

tortions which they never fail to commit on the Greeks whenever they have an opportunity. It might be said that, like voracious and lazy drones, the Turks have come to establish themselves on a foreign land only for the purpose of consuming there, without trouble and without care, the subsistence which others draw from the earth by their labour, or procure themselves from abroad by their industry.

The character of these foreigners is so strongly marked, that a traveller finds them the same into whatever country of the empire he transports himself. The Turks of EUROPE, nevertheless, are reckoned to be more courageous, more ferocious, but not so ignorant nor so honest as those of ASIA. Those of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the principal maritime towns, are, in general, somewhat more mild, somewhat better informed, than those who live up the country. Those of the Island of CRETE are distinguished for their malice, their good look, and their intelligence.

Whether the Sphachiots, whose courage they have experienced, and with whose hostile disposition they are acquainted, render them mistrustful, or whether the great number of other Greeks by whom the island is peopled, equally obliges them to keep on their guard, the Turks, here more than elsewhere, are always inclined to put a Greek to death with their own hands, or send him to execution, under the smallest pretext. False witnesses make no scruple of appearing before the tribunals, when the question is legally to get rid of a man whose property is coveted and whose courage is dreaded:

No one is ignorant that, in the capital, it has been sometimes proposed to recur to a general measure, and to cut off in one day all the Greeks of the empire: but interest has always withheld the arm when ready to strike. In CRETE, recourse will infallibly be had to this atrocious measure, if the island were threatened by an European power. We are persuaded, that on the first  
danger

danger the Turks of this island would not fail to seize, indiscriminately, all the Greeks who might be in a condition to carry arms, and to sacrifice them to their own safety, unless that power should have taken beforehand the precaution of transmitting arms secretly, and of screening, by that means, these unfortunate beings from the murderous sword of their oppressors.

The Turks are, in general, handsomer than the Europeans. Their stature is not taller; but their features are more regular; their countenance is commonly more agreeable, and more expressive. Do they owe this advantage to their inactive life, to the climate which they inhabit, to the aliments which they use, to the comfort which they almost all enjoy, or must we attribute the cause of it to those slaves, generally rather handsome, who have brought them into the world? What would induce us to believe that the more general beauty of the women, in TURKEY, contributes greatly to the beauty of the men, is that the Turks of CRETE, who, since they have occupied the island, are in the habit of marrying, in the *kapin* manner, the handsomest Greek girls of the country, are still handsomer than those of the rest of TURKEY.

They are also more intelligent: to see them and hear them, one would imagine that they have received from their mothers a few sparks of that brilliant wit, of that shrewd sagacity, with which the Greeks are endowed, and which they have preserved, even in slavery.

These Turks are the only ones in the empire, who, notwithstanding the prejudices of their nation, have ventured to submit to a sort of quarantine all strangers who come from a country infested with the plague. They even carry precaution so far as to prohibit their ports to vessels that have on board sick suspected to have that disorder, unless they bring provisions of which the island stands in great need; and in that case they, by every known means,  
hinder

hinder the plague from being introduced among them. But as they cannot prevent the access of a Turkish ship of war, nor subject her to the salutary regulations of the island, the precautions which they take with respect to others, are very often insufficient. In fact, the galiondgis, from whatever country they come, and whatever may be their state of health, are eager to get on shore, land their effects, and communicate with the inhabitants of the town and country. Thus it was that a kerlanguisch belonging to the PORTA, arrived from CANEA, in the year IV. (1796), brought thither a plague of the most contagious and most destructive nature, which in less than two years visited the whole island, and carried off upwards of one-fourth of the inhabitants. It had not yet ceased when we left CONSTANTINOPLE, in the year VI. (1798), although it had, for several months past, lost much of its malignity.

Another law, less wise no doubt, which results from the too small quantity of corn that the island furnishes, subjects vessels laden with grain and other provisions, which happen to put into one of its harbours, to sell their cargo before they get under sail again. And were the island provided with a sufficient abundance of provisions to be sold at a very low price, the captain could not obtain permission to carry his commodity elsewhere without making a present to the pacha, to the custom-house officer, and to the corps of janizaries.

In the principal towns, it is a pleasure to see public granaries which were probably constructed in the time of the Venetians. These consist of large square pits in masonry, coated with a cement capable of securing from humidity the grain contained in them. The opening is narrow, and carefully closed. Corn keeps very well in these pits, provided they are not too damp. They are very common in ITALY, and throughout the EAST: their form is more frequently oval, and very much swelled in the middle. We might have

recourse to them with the same advantage in FRANCE, and, as occasion required, make use of those vats in masonry which the inhabitants are in the habit of constructing in most of the wine-countries.

The corn which is gathered in CRETE not being sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants, there comes every year a tolerably large quantity from VOLO, from SALONICA, from the MOREA, from SYRIA, and sometimes from EGYPT.

Wine is made only in a few districts of the island: in some others, the inhabitants prefer carrying their grapes to the town, or drying them for trade. Those who have no wine dispense with it, and drink water: it seldom happens that any is brought to them from the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

The mulberry-tree vegetates very well in CRETE. Silk-worms thrive there wonderfully, and, nevertheless, that tree is scarce. Every year is brought from SYRIA the filk necessary for the manufacture of a few strings and a few ribands, which are exported to CONSTANTINOPLE. Some cloths in silk and cotton, and in silk and flax, are also manufactured: the latter serve for making shirts and shifts, and are consumed in the country.

Although flax is tolerably plentiful, yet it does not suffice for the wants of the inhabitants: they draw a great deal from EGYPT.

Cotton is little cultivated; that which is consumed in this island, comes from SMYRNA and the environs of EPHEBUS.

There arrive also from this latter place buffalo-hides and ox-hides, and coarse sheep-skins, for the use of the mountaineers, who make of them a sort of boot which reaches to the knee.

Sesamum is cultivated in a small quantity: in the towns, its seed is mixed with bread, in order to give the latter more flavour. Here the inhabitants are not in the habit of extracting oil from it, as is practised in some islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in some districts of SYRIA, and in a good part of PERSIA and INDIA.

The only articles of exportation from the Island of CRETE, are oil, soap, wax, honey, cheese, raisins, almonds, walnuts, chestnuts, St. JOHN's bread, linseed, and liquorice-root.

The oil that the island can furnish in a good season is estimated at two hundred thousand milleroles\*. Of this the French draw nearly one-fourth: the Italians and Germans take off a small quantity: the people of the country make a great consumption of it for their food. All the rest is consumed by the soap-houses.

Next to oil, soap is one of the most important articles of exportation. It passes to TUNIS, to CONSTANTINOPLE, and into all the towns of the LEVANT. It is not so good as that of MARSEILLES for washing and cleaning linen; but, nevertheless, the Turks prefer it, because it is cheaper, and is, besides, almost as good as ours for washing their body, shaving their head, and for the other uses to which they apply it.

At CANDIA, there are twenty-five soap-houses, which employ the greater part of the oils of the province, and of those situated in the east part of the island. There were formerly several French houses in that town, which exported to MARSEILLES part of the oils which were gathered in the environs. Cargoes of it were also shipped at SPINA-LONGA, MIRABEL, SETTIA, and

\* A measure of MARSEILLES, which is equal to sixty-six pintes, PARIS measure.

GERA-PETRA; but the merchants have been obliged, by degrees, to abandon their establishments, because the Turks, who wished to make themselves masters of all the oils of these countries for their soap-houses, frequently raised the populace against them, and put their life in danger. It may be expected that one day the same thing will happen at CANEA. The French houses there maintain themselves only because the present custom-house officer is a man of weight, and finds a greater profit in the extraction of the oil made by the Europeans, than in that of the soap made by the Turks; for the Europeans pay in CRETE three per cent. of the value of merchandise, while the Turks there pay only two and a half. The Greeks, the Jews, and the Armenians, pay five per cent.

Although oils are in great abundance in the environs of RETIMO, there are to the present day no more than eight soap-houses in that town, because the French established at CANEA also ship there several cargoes of oil, and because the greater part of these manufactories belong to Jews under the protection of FRANCE. If the Turks succeed in getting possession of all these soap-houses, which they frequently attempt, the French merchants will be obliged to relinquish the oils of RETIMO, because the Turks will then tax the oils of that province, as they have done at CANDIA, and reserve to themselves alone all the profits.

There are twenty soap-houses at CANEA, which employ the oils of the provinces of KISSAMOS, SELINO, and KIDONIA; but these oils are in such plenty, that the French houses established in that town dispatch to MARSEILLES, during the year of the gathering and the following, to the value of from one to two millions of our livres.

The wax which is not consumed in the island, is purchased by the French merchants, who send it to MARSEILLES. This article, which is

generally of the value of from 12 to 15,000 livres, amounts sometimes to 30,000, and even more.

The honey is of little importance: it passes to CONSTANTINOPLE and into EGYPT.

The exportation of cheese from SPHACHIA and the environs is estimated at upwards of 30,000 livres: it almost all goes to CONSTANTINOPLE.

Raisins are a considerable article of exportation. They are sent to EGYPT and to SYRIA. A few years before our arrival, an English vessel took in a cargo of these, which, undoubtedly, did not answer, as no other vessel belonging to that nation has since presented herself for the same object. The raisins of CRETE having large stones, being dirty, and frequently impregnated with earth, cannot suit the English, who put this fruit into their puddings. In the LEVANT, they are scarcely employed, except for making brandy and sherbets.

The other fruits pass into EGYPT and SYRIA, as well as liquorice-root. Linseed is purchased by the Italians.

The French, one year with another, bring from MARSEILLES to the value of from 150 to 160,000 livres, in CARCASSONE woollen cloths, gilding, laces, and stuffs of LYONS, in imperial serges manufactured at NISMES, in small shot, tin, iron, steel, coffee, sugar, nutmegs, cloves, indigo, cochineal, paper, and in various articles of hard-ware.

From VENICE and from TRIESTE are brought glass-ware, hard-ware, and, above all, planks, the greater part of which serve for making soap-cases. The returns are made in oil, in soap, and in wax. As these commodities

are there of greater value than those which are brought, the balance is paid in VENICE sequins.

The inhabitants of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO bring to CANDIA and CANEA, almost all the wood necessary for the soap-houses; they procure it either in CARAMANIA, or in GREECE. Every year there arrive ten or twelve boats, each valued at 12 or 1500 piaftres.- They take in return oil and soap.

The Cretans themselves carry on some trade: they draw from SALONICA, corn, cotton, tobacco, and iron; from CONSTANTINOPLE, BURSA stuffs, ANGORA *challits*, shoes, handkerchiefs for the head-dresses of their women, and copper utensils. At SMYRNA, they take hides, Turkey leather or Morocco, cotton, quilted coverlids, English shaloons, and some French goods.

At GAZA, they take ashes for their soap-houses; at ALEPPO, silk stuffs: they purchase, on all the coast of SYRIA, corn and silk.

EGYPT supplies them with corn, rice, flax, linen-cloths, and ashes. DERNÄ and BENGÄZI, on the coast of AFRICA, send butter, known under the name of *mantègue*. TUNIS and TRIPOLI exchange their caps and their corn for soap and sequins.

On Mount IDÄ and in SPHÄCHIA is found a species of *tragacantha*, which furnishes a little gum tragacanth; but this production is not there in sufficient abundance to be gathered and to enter into trade.

Ladanum is an article of little importance: a very small quantity of it passes to SMYRNA and to CONSTANTINOPLE.

The wool is short, coarse, and like that of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO. It is all consumed in the country.

Every one is acquainted with the hone which commerce draws from CRETE and from STANCHIO. The former, not so good nor so fine as the other, is found to the south-west of RETIMO, in the territory of the Sphachiots. It is generally brought to the harbour of CANEA, whence it is sent to MARSEILLES, and into some towns of ITALY.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

# *ATLAS*

TO ILLUSTRATE THE

# TRAVELS

THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE,  
DURING THE FIRST SIX YEARS OF THE REPUBLIC;

BY

G. A. OLIVIER,

MEMBER OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE, OF THE SOCIETY OF AGRICULTURE  
OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE, &c. &c.

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SECOND EDITION.

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1802.



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# EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

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(FIRST DELIVERY.)

## TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

**PLATE I.** General Map of the west part of ASIA MINOR or NATOLIA, of the PROPONTIS or Sea of MARMORA, of all the ARCHIPELAGO, of the Island of CRETÉ, of the MORIA, of GREECE, of EPIRUS, and of a part of ALBANIA and of MACEDONIA.

It is constructed from that of ANACHARSIS, published by Citizen BARBIE DU BOCAUL, from the chart of GREECE of M. DE CHOISEUL, and from that of the CYCLADES, procured from the *Dépôt de la Marine*. I made, on the spot, the corrections and alterations which observation pointed out to me.

**PLATE II.** BOSPHORUS of THRACE or Channel of the BLACK SEA, with an indication of the nature of the soil which is met with on its shores.

This chart was constructed from the plans drawn by order of M. DE CHOISEUL. The part from BÜYÜK-DERE to the BLACK SEA, was rectified from the observations of Citizen MONNIER, engineer.

**PLATE III.** Plan of the head of the Gulf of MUNDANIA, copied from that drawn on the spot, by Citizen TOUSSAINT, naval architect.

**PLATE IV.** HELLESPONT or Channel of the DARDANELLES.

This chart was drawn on the spot, from observation, and from a manuscript chart which was in the hands of the captain of a Venetian vessel.

**PLATE V.** Map of TROAS and of all the course of the SIMOIS, from its source at Mount CORYLUS to its mouth half a league from Cape SIGEUM.

It was constructed from a manuscript map drawn by M. KAUFFER, a French engineer, at present in the service of the Ottoman PORTE. I have made a few trifling alterations in the parts which I visited and examined.

## EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

**PLATE VI.** Plan of the Islands of **MILO**, **ARGENTIERA**, and **POLINO**, drawn on the spot and from the observations of **M. DE CHABERT**, ex-director of the *Département de la Marine*.

**PLATE VII.** Plan of the Island of **THERA** or **SANTORIN**, drawn on the spot. The soundings were taken by the captain of a French frigate, and were communicated to me by the principal inhabitants of the island.

**PLATE VIII.** Gulf of **SUDA**, in the Island of **CANDIA**. Plan drawn from that in manuscript which was constructed in 1738, by **LEROI**, engineer of the Navy.

**OBSERVATION.** The good anchorage of this road is in eighteen fathoms muddy bottom, the old Island of **SUDA**, bearing north-east or north north-east. The anchorage of **LA CLUATE** is in twelve or thirteen fathoms bottom of grafs and shells, bringing the point of the fort and Cape **CALAPEDE** in one with each other.

**PLATE IX.** It represents a **TURKISH BURYING-GROUND**, planted with cypresses, and a religious scene before a tomb more remarkable than the rest.

**PLATE X.** It represents two women of **SCIO**, with their ordinary costume or dress, except that they wear, when full dressed only, the two sleeves of silk and gold stuff which is seen on them.

**PLATE XI.** It represents two women of **ARGENTIERA**, with their ordinary dress; one of them is spinning cotton with a distaff, although the women of that island generally make use of a wheel.

**PLATE XII.** Branch of the **HAIRY-CUPPED OAK**, with two acorns. Its wood is employed, throughout the **LEVANT**, in ship-building and in the frame-work of houses.

**PLATE XIII.** Branch of the **VELANI OAK**, with its large cup and its acorn. This cup, known in trade under the name of *velanida*, is employed in dyeing and tanning.

**PLATE XIV.** Branch of the oak which produces the *gammal* and *cothurn*, with two acorns and two galls. It is taken from a young and very vigorous stem.

**PLATE XV.** Branch of the *same oak*, with its fruit: on it are seen three galls used in trade, *a, a, a*, and, above, the diplolepis which produces this gallnut, *c, c*. One of them is of the natural size, and the other is magnified. On the same oak, is a spongy red gallnut covered with a resinous coat, *b*; underneath is represented the diplolepis which produces it, *d, d*. The one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

\* This Plate requiring particular care in the execution, is not yet finished; it will be delivered with those which refer to the *TRAVELS IN EGYPT*.



## EXPLANATION OF THE PLATES.

**PLATE XVI. REPTILES OF THE ARCHIPELAGO.** Figure 1, represents the ocellated scink, which is met with in CRETE, in CYPRUS, and in EGYPT. It is of the natural size. Figure 2, represents a Boa of the natural size, found at POLINO, and NAXOS: A shews it on its belly, and B on its back.

## PLATE XVII. LAND-SHELLS.

*Fig. 1. a, and fig. 1. b.* Chestnut snail, *Helix castanea*, which is eaten by the Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE and GHEMLEK.

*Fig. 2. a, b.* Blunt Bulimus, *Bulimus retusus* of CRETE; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

*Fig. 3. a, b.* Inflated Bulimus, *Bulimus inflatus*; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

*Fig. 4. a, b.* Twisted-necked Bulimus, *Bulimus torticollis* of CRETE; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

*Fig. 5.* Fasciolated Bulimus, *Bulimus fasciolatus* of CRETE; natural size.

*Fig. 6. a, b.* Taper Bulimus, *Bulimus teres* of CRETE; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

*Fig. 7. a, b, c.* Flat-spined Helix, *Helix spiriplana* of CRETE; natural size.

*Fig. 8.* Whelk-like Melania; *Melania buccinoidea* of SCIO; natural size.

*Fig. 9. a, b.* Denticulated Bulimus, *Bulimus denticulatus* of SCIO; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

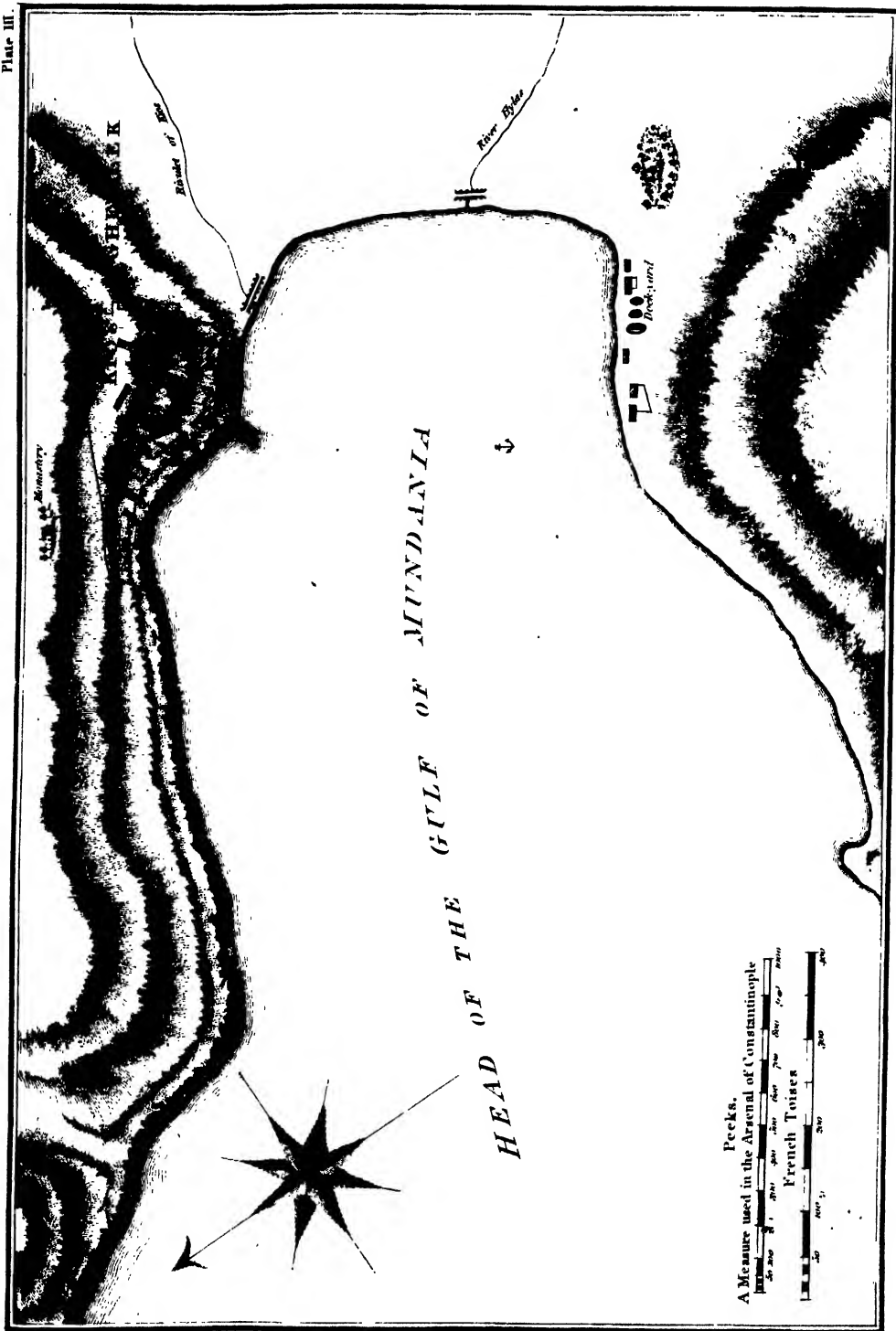
*Fig. 10, a, b.* Zebra Bulimus, *Bulimus zebra* of GHEMLEK; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.

*Fig. 11. a; fig. 11. b.* Oriental Planorbis, *Planorbis orientalis* of SCIO; natural size.

*Fig. 12. a; fig. 12. b.* Oval Bulimus, *Bulimus ovalaris*; the one is magnified, and the other is of the natural size.







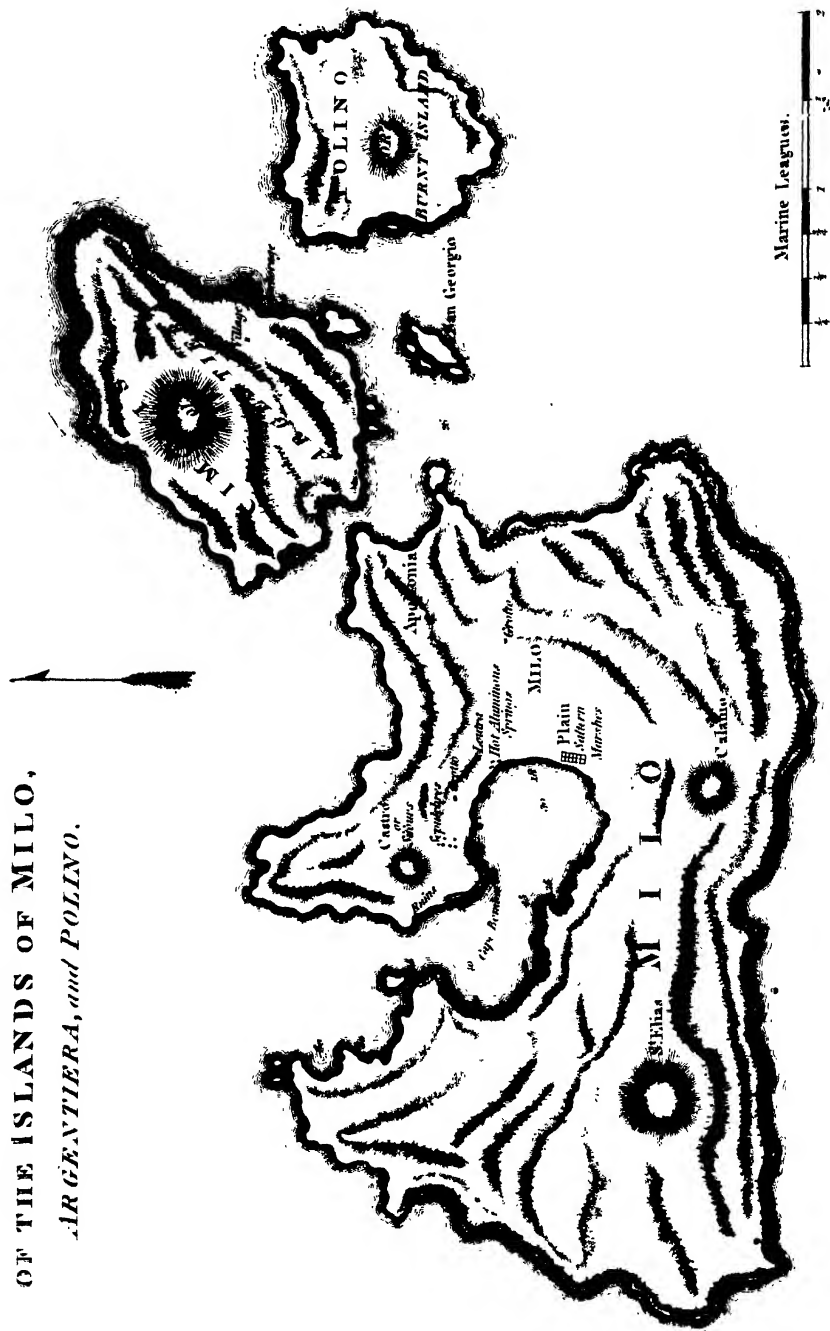
Fathoms.  
A Measure used in the Arsenal of Constantinople  
French Toises



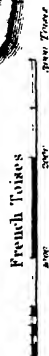




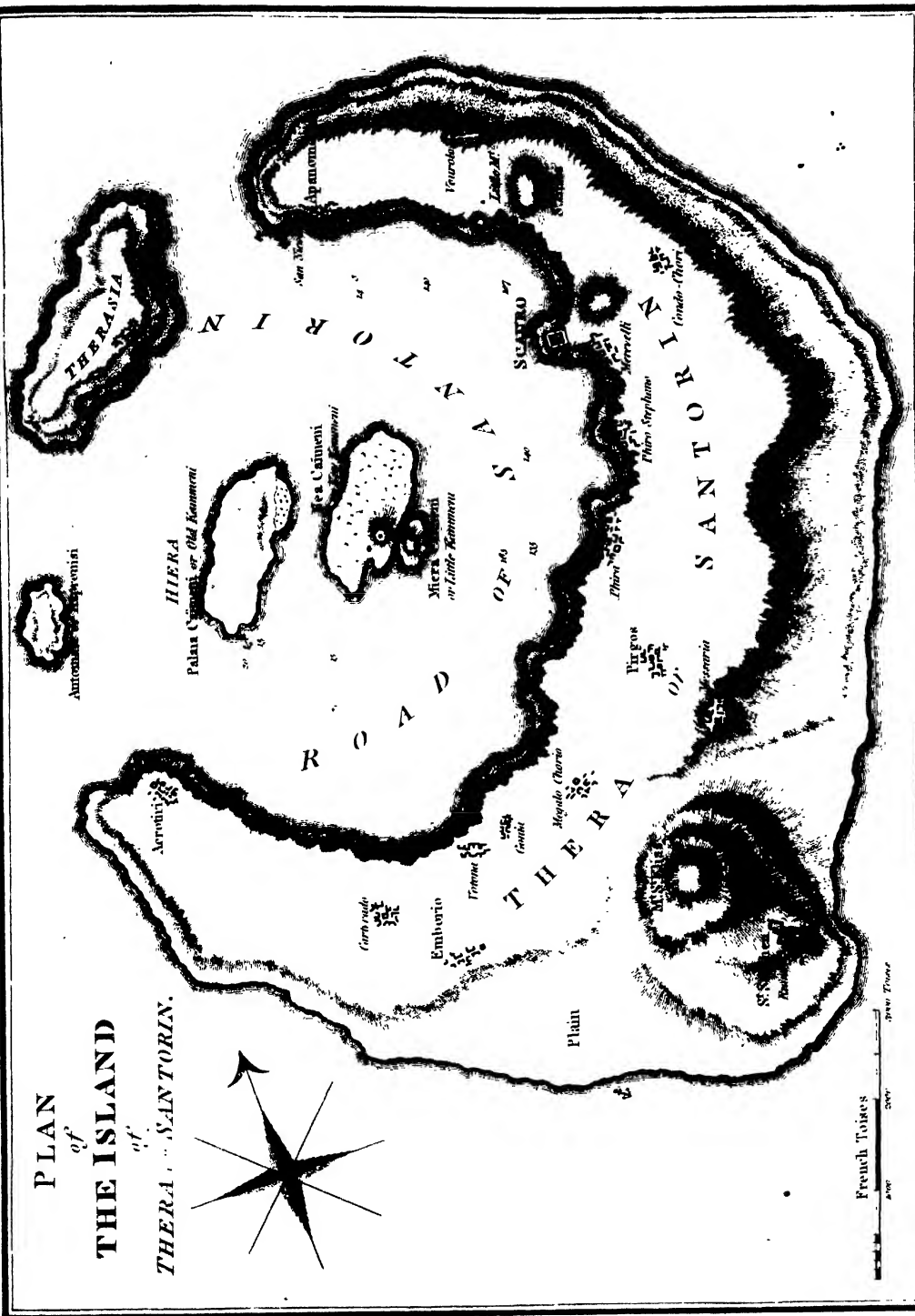
# PLAN OF THE ISLANDS OF MILO, *ARGENTIERA, and POLINO.*





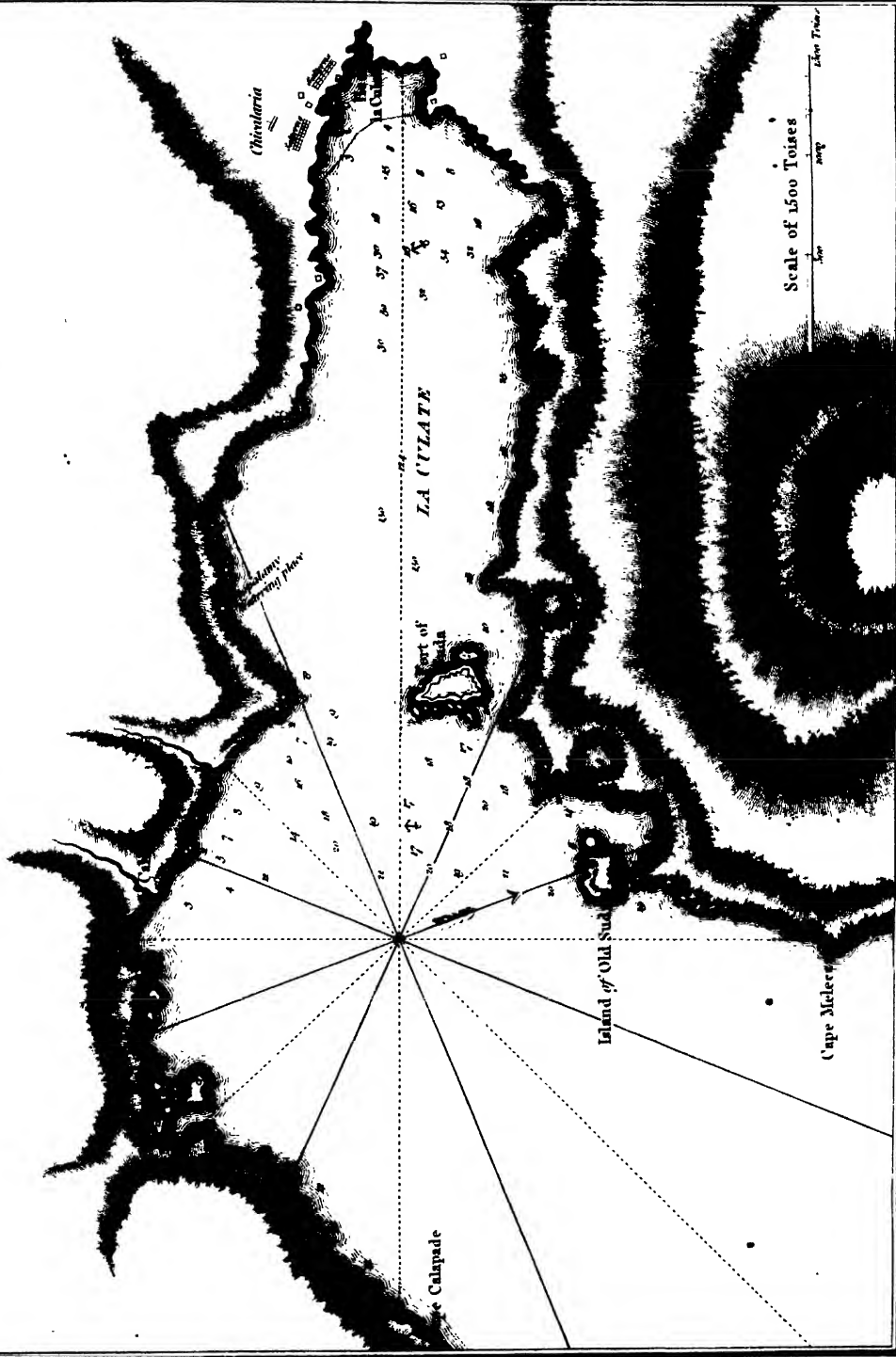


Published Sep<sup>r</sup> 10<sup>th</sup> 1861, by L. OGDEN & REES, Paper-printer Row

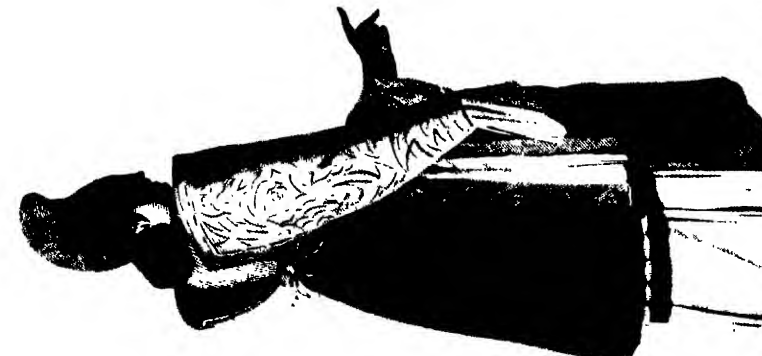
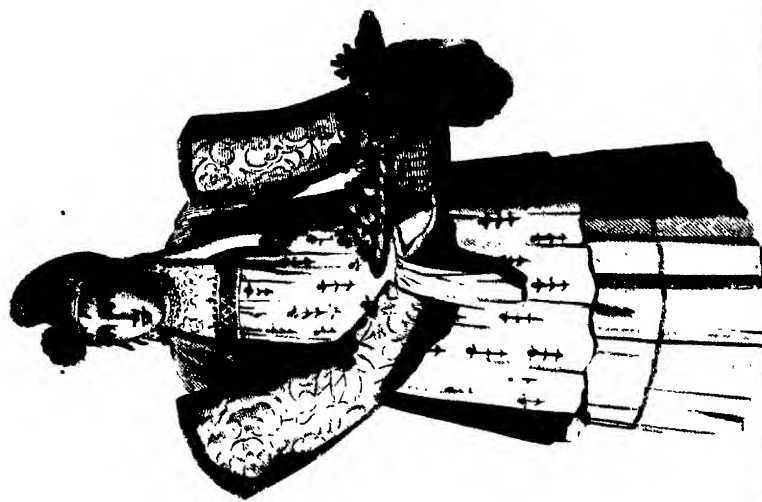




# GULF OF SUDA, IN THE ISLAND OF CANDIA.





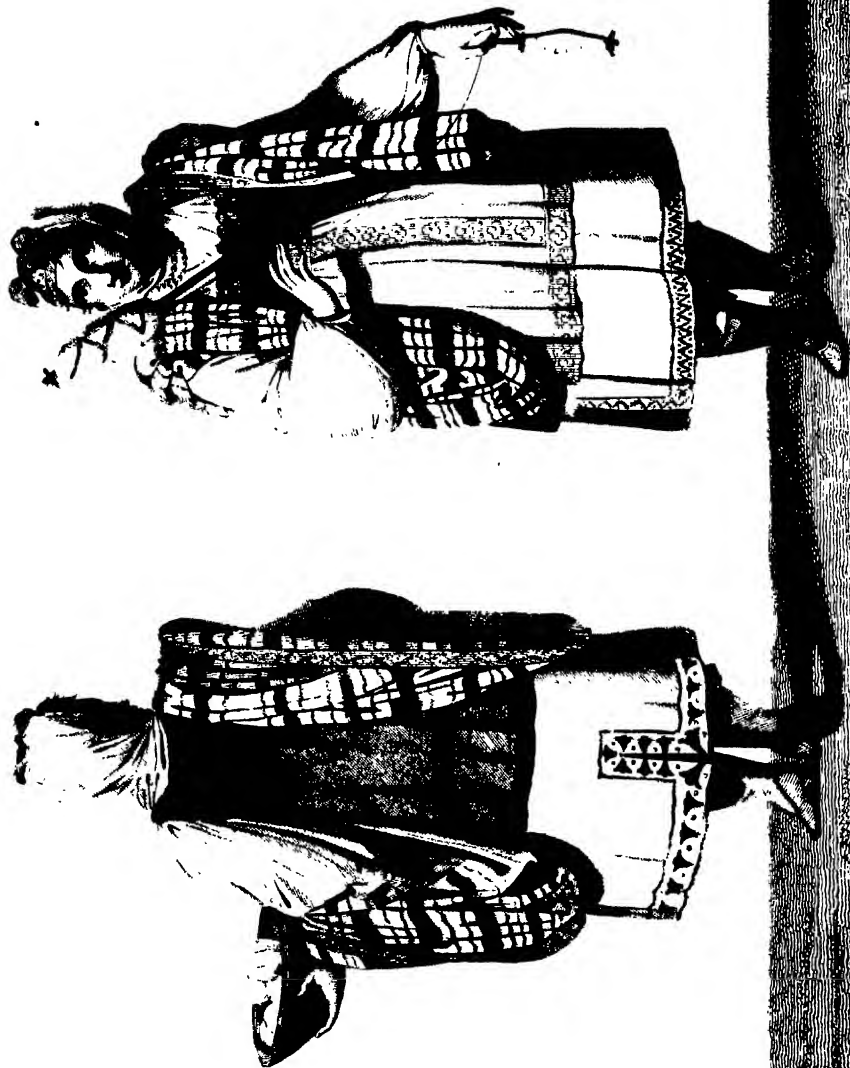


WOMEN OF SCIO.

*Wright copy*

*Wright del.*





WOMEN OF ARGENTIERA.

Wright del.

Wright x. 4p





*F. F. Rohlf del.*

*L. V. V. sculp.*

**HAIRY-CUPPED OAK. - *QUERCUS CORYMBOSA*.**





P. J. Redouté del.

H. Cocker sculp.

VELANI OAK. - *QUERCUS EGILOPS*

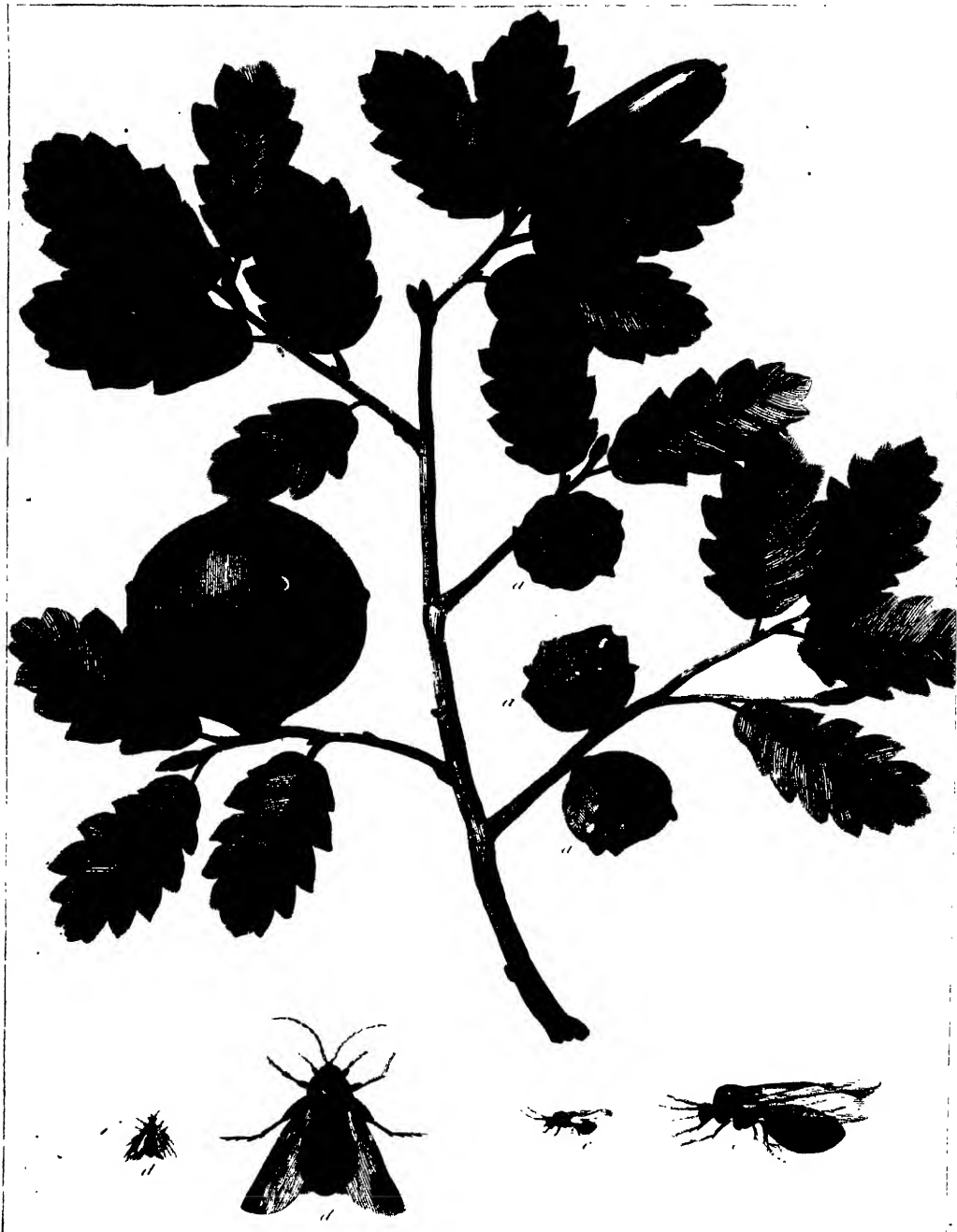




*P. J. Reiche del.*

**OAK** which produces the gallnut used in trade *QUERCUS INFECTORIA.*





*J. B. Smith del.*

**OAK** which produces the gallnut used in trade *QUERCUS INFECTORIA.*



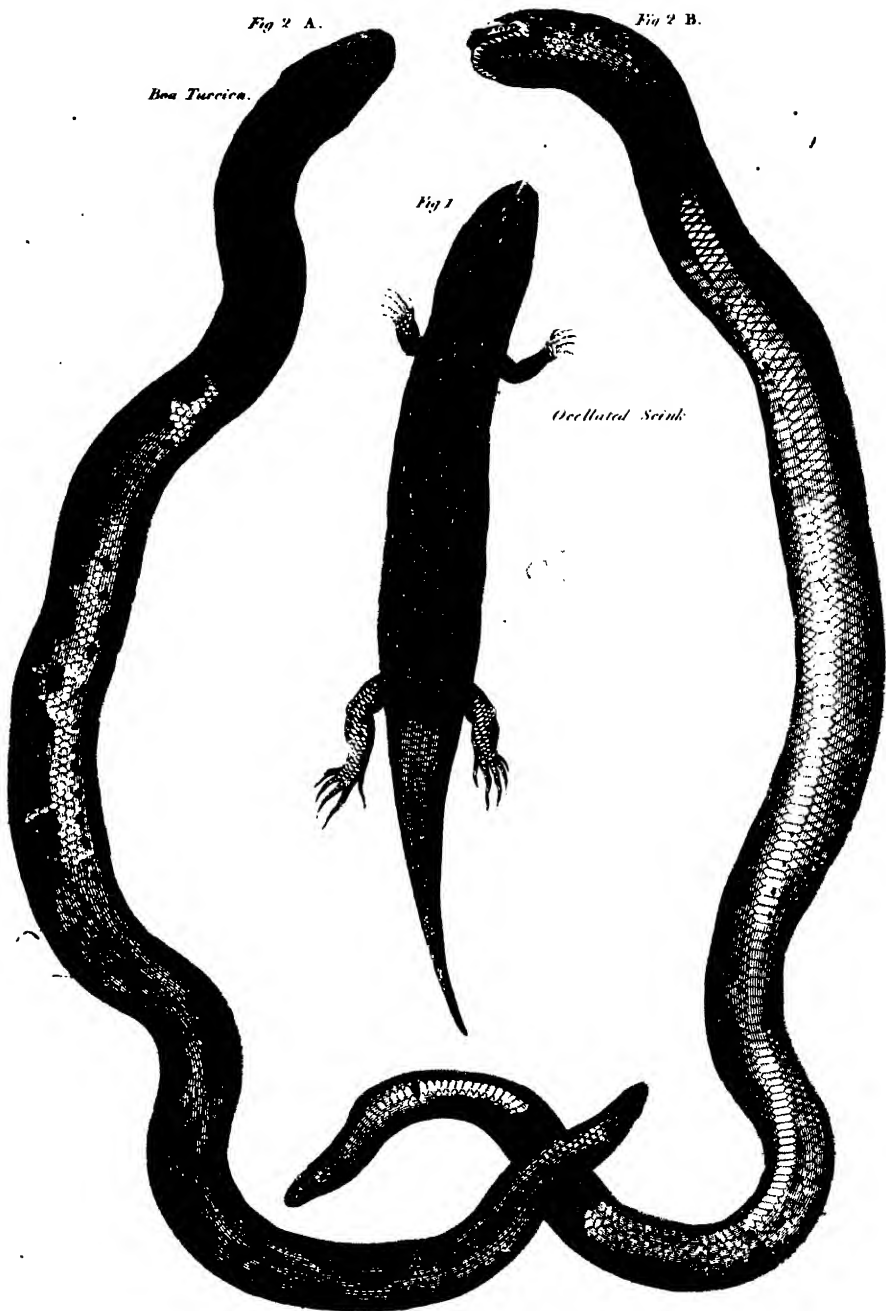
Fig 2 A.

Fig 2 B.

*Boa Tuccica.*

Fig 1

*Ocellated Scink.*



*Delaware del*

REPTILES OF THE ISLANDS OF THE ARCHIPELAGO.

*Van*















